FACTORS IN THE FORMULATION OF COLLEGIATE PROGRAMS FOR NEGROES

BYRON K. ARMSTRONG

1939

FACTORS IN THE FORMULATION OF COLLEGIATE PROGRAMS FOR NEGROES

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the University of Michigan.

By

BYRON K. ARMSTRONG

Printed in U.S.A.

EDWARDS BROTHERS, INC.

Lithoprinters and Publishers

ANN ARBOR, MICHIGAN

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Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1939

PREFACE

The investigation for this work was undertaken under the direction and supervision of Dr. Clifford Woody, Chairman of the Committee on Graduate Study of the School of Education of the University of Michigan. Dr. George Myers, Professor of Vocational Education, gave many valuable suggestions, particularly in the vocational aspects of the inquiry. Dr. Trow, Professor of Educational Psychology, has been of great aid to me, especially in the methods of scientific procedure. Dr. Dickinson of the Department of Economics has given timely suggestions and help, and Dr. McClusky and Dr. Fraser have been of much assistance.

I am deeply grateful to all the above members of my committee for their interest and co-operation, and to the publishers who have permitted me to use material from their books.

I wish, also, to express my sincere appreciation of the valuable help given by my secretary, Miss Dorothy Ainsworth, during the years of this investigation.

Byron K. Armstrong

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present investigation is to indicate some significant factors to be considered in the formulation of a collegiate program for Negroes. Those which have been selected for consideration in this dissertation are: (1) historic trends and facts in the development of Negro higher education; (2) statistical data of the Negro college; (3) employment trends of the graduates of a typical Negro vocational college; (4) employment trends of Negro college graduates in New York City; (5) employment trends of Negro college graduates as indicated by data from the files of the placement bureaus of three typical Negro liberal arts colleges; (6) and factors as determined by the objectives and contents of Negro college curricula both past and present.

These factors were chosen for the following reasons: historic trends and facts are significant in the formulation of a college program because the Negro college, as a social institution, is subject to the laws of social evaluation. Consequently comprehensive and realistic thinking about the college of today rests upon a knowledge of its origins. The historic social approach also makes easier both the recognition and identification of significant factors in the present confused status of the Negro college program. Moreover, the keen insights of prominent college educators who have played an important role in the development of Negro institutions of higher learning, should enable us not only to guard against the ready acceptance of half concepts in projecting the college program, but also serve to reveal the organic and broad objectives to which it should be dedicated.[1]

Statistical data of the Negro college instructional program are significant in the present investigation because they assist in charting the past, present and future trends of the college program.

> However inexact statistical verification in the social sciences (education) may be, it is better than none. A consideration of the several antagonistic tendencies always operative in the social field with no attempt to measure the intensity of their pull, can lead to no definite conclusions. When conclusions are reached, the soundness of the quantitative comparisons that must be implicit in them will be much more certain if they are grounded in statistical observation and analysis serving as a check upon intuitive and biased judgment.[2]

Employment Trends of the Graduates of a Typical Negro Vocational College--Employment trends of Negro college graduates in New York City, and of graduates of Negro liberal arts colleges, are pertinent to the present investigation because they indicate the lines of work which graduates are following and give an index of supply and demand for professional and trade workers. These factors are vital in determining the curricula objectives and content which Negro colleges should follow if they are to keep pace with the changing economic pattern.[3]

The objectives and contents of the Negro college curricula and the development which they have undergone are significant to the present investigation because they not only indicate the present status of the instructional program, but also point the way to changes which must be made if it is to meet the demands of a changing

1. C. V. Good, A. S. Barr and D. E. Scates, Methodology of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century Co., 1936), p. 243.
2. Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Vol. XIV (New York: Macmillan Co., 1934), p. 366.
3. All Negro colleges are called upon to aid their graduates in securing positions.

civilization.[4]

All these factors, outlined in the preceding paragraphs, were selected because of their availability and because data concerning them existed in sufficient quantity and was of such nature as to permit reliable analysis.

Repeated cross tabulation and statistical analysis revealed several of the factors listed in Chapter VI under the topic, "Factors in the Formulation of a College Program." It is not surprising that most of these are economic. Since the American Negro has occupied a subservient economic position throughout the history of the nation, the chief motive behind his activities has been economic. This motive, consequently, has deeply affected every social institution of the race, including the college, and has been most potent in shaping the nature and destiny of the Negro college program of instruction.

Although in the past the college has adapted itself as best it could, today the social pattern has changed so rapidly during the depression years, that the college curriculum has lagged behind. A demand has been made from all sides that the college reshape its program to meet the new conditions and to furnish positive assistance in giving men work and aid in solving the problem of bread.[5] Hence the present investigation has selected a large number of these factors on the basis of their value in reshaping the college program to meet these economic needs. Thus an analysis of significant employment trends and experience[6] of the graduates of the Negro college is vital.

Data: Source and Method of Analysis

Chapter I--The historical material was secured from the New York Public Library and its 135th Street Branch (which contains the Schonberg collection of rare Negro books), the libraries of the University of Michigan, Columbia University, Howard University in Washington, D.C., Fisk University in Nashville, and Langston University in Langston, Oklahoma.

Chapter II--These data were collected from the libraries mentioned above and from the following sources: the tabulations of Table 18 were made from the unpublished occupational records of the alumni of Fisk University and from the results of a survey of the graduates of Negro colleges in America. The tabulations of Table 25 were made from the rosters of Howard alumni, which contain occupation, residence, department of graduation, and degree. A random sample of two hundred graduates of each department from the time of the first graduate to the year 1934, was used. The data bearing on the time between graduation and first employment, judgment of Negro college graduates as to the most useful subject studied in relation to their present occupations, fields of concentration of 5,513 Negro college graduates engaged in certain selected occupations, were secured by the writer from the unpublished records of Howard and Fisk universities. The methods of analysis as set forth in pages 29 to 33, and Tables 26 and 27 were worked out by the writer.

The five-letter scales of intelligence found in the section "Mental Ability of Negro College Students" were calculated as follows: A plot of the frequency distributions of the data showed that the Pearson Type III Curve[7] would give a fair fit. The averages and standard deviations of the various distributions were then computed, and the letter grades were calculated according to the following values for the standard deviations of the distributions:

A Values above +1.5 S.D. above the average.
B Values from +1.5 S.D. to +.5 S.D. above the average.
C Values between +.5 S.D. above to -.5 S.D. below the average.
D Values from -.5 S.D. to -1.5 S.D. below the average.
F Values falling below -1.5 S.D. below the average.

4. W. H. Kilpatrick, Education for a Changing Civilization (New York: Macmillan Co., 1927).
5. This approach was suggested by Professors Moody and Myers.
6. W. E. B. DuBois, "Education and Work," Journal of Negro Education. 1932, I, 60-74.
7. Truman L. Kelley, Statistical Method (New York: Macmillan Co., 1923).

Chapter III--The statistical data of a typical vocational college were secured by the writer when he visited Hampton Institute (Hampton, Virginia) in the fall of 1935, and was taken from registration and placement sheets[8] and unpublished reports of the Bureau of Records of the Institute.

The tabulations showing scholarship and major, scholarship and position, etc., were obtained from a random sample of two hundred application and placement cards of degreed graduates who had applied for work and had been placed.

The percentages of unemployment for Illinois in 1935, shown in Table 45, were computed by the writer, from data in the Chicago office of the Federal Emergency Relief Bureau.

Chapter IV--The data on registration, help wanted, and placement of Negro labor by the Harlem office of the New York State Employment Service were obtained in 1934 by the writer from the monthly tabulation sheets of the statistical department of the main New York City office of the New York State Employment Service. At the same time he also obtained the statistical data concerning 288 college graduates registered in the Harlem office from application and placement cards[9] in the professional files. All of the professional cards (nearly 1,000) for the years 1932, 1933, and the first six months of 1934 were used.[10]

An examination, made in 1934 and 1935, of the registration and placement cards of the Chicago Urban League, the New York Urban League and the St. Louis Urban League showed that New York was the only city where the number of Negro college graduates registered was large enough to be significant for statistical analysis.

Chapter V--During the year 1934 statistical data concerning the college graduates registered in college placement bureaus were collected by the writer from the placement bureaus of Howard University (Washington, D.C.), Fisk University (Nashville, Tennessee), and Lincoln University (Jefferson City, Missouri). From Howard University a random sample of four hundred applicants and all the notices of positions and requests for candidates, covering a period of slightly over thirteen years, were used. For Fisk University all of the registration and placement cards[11] of the bureau over a period of five years (1929-1933) were utilized.

The tabulations found in Tables 67 and 68, and in pages 83 to 87 inclusive, are from data from the three bureaus, taken from the registration and application cards of applicants and from the requests for graduates to fill positions.

An analysis of the application blanks and placement cards of applicants for positions in the St. Louis Public Negro High School were made for the present study in the fall of 1935, and resulted in the data and tabulations found on pages 87 to 90 inclusive.

Chapter VI--Interviews were held with persons[12] who were experienced in the placement of Negro college graduates and with other educators, economists, and sociologists familiar with the Negro college and its problems. To give an empirical check to the statistical trends and data and conclusions reached in this dissertation, the following institutions were visited by the author in connection with these interviews: the New York Urban League, the St. Louis Urban League, Howard University, Hampton Institute, Fisk University, Lincoln University, Langston University, Wiley University, the Missouri Employment Bureau in St. Louis, Agricultural and Technical College for Negroes, Nashville, Tennessee, the Harlem and downtown offices of the New York State Employment Service, and the Federal Emergency Relief offices in Chicago. Graduates of the various institutions mentioned in this dissertation also gave valuable checks for the material.

Methods of Statistical Analysis

Statistical data used in the

8. Samples of these sheets are found in the Appendix.
9. See samples in Appendix.
10. The cards for these years were the only ones available.
11. See the Appendix for sample cards.
12. A list of these persons with their positions is given in the Appendix.

quantitative analysis of the investigation are: the average; standard deviation; the coefficient of correlation; coefficient of skewness; coefficient of mean square contingency; T scores based on the method of Carver; and coefficient of variability.

Additional statements on the methods of calculation are given in the body of the text.[13]

Basic Assumptions

As has already been implied, certain basic principles are assumed as underlying the investigation and interpretation of facts set forth in this dissertation.

1. Since the problem under investigation is one in education (a social science), deductions from trends, tendencies, laws, or implications are possible only in the form of an intellectual auscultation[14]--the method employed by the educationalist to establish a diagnosis of an educational problem before he arrives at correct insight into the totality of factors or trends of the problem. Thus, in this dissertation quantitative as well as qualitative trends, facts, and data in a historical and statistical form, are isolated and interpreted.[15]

2. In dealing with any social problem involving the Negro in America, or his institutions, it is necessary to view the situation as a whole, rather than a narrow phase of the problem, since the Negro is subjected to all the hindrances of a group within a group, and many facts necessary for a complete picture of his condition are wholly lacking.

3. In the treatment of educational, or other social problems of the Negro, the American public, so little informed on such questions, is interested in the practical facts rather than the theoretical aspect of the situation. It is, therefore, proposed in this study, to set forth the results of extensive research covering a period of years and a broad field of investigation.

4. In the improvement of social phenomena an active policy of directed selection and variation is more effective than the slow processes of natural selection and variation.

13. Calculations have been done on the Monroe calculator in the statistical laboratory of the University of Michigan. The "work tables" from which statistical data in the dissertation were compiled are in the possession of the author.
14. Henri Bergson, Introduction to Metaphysics (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1912), p. 36.
15. Michael Demashkevich, An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education (New York: American Book Co., 1936).

Chapter I

A RÉSUMÉ OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEGRO HIGHER EDUCATION

Significance of the Development of Negro Higher Education

A general résumé of the development of Negro higher education will indicate in a measure the historic trends and facts which have been instrumental in shaping both the educational policies and the curricula of the Negro college. Even today much of the activity of the Negro college rests on tradition, and it is only as there is an understanding of the factors that have entered into the programs of instruction can these programs be evaluated and the prejudices which surround them find an effective solvent.[1]

Education of the Ante-Bellum Negro

Much of the early history of American Negro education is concerned with the efforts to secure even elementary educational advantages for the ever-increasing population of slaves and freemen, and to provide opportunities, however limited, for the higher training of Negro leaders. It is closely linked with the issue of slavery, the efforts for abolition, and the problems arising from the need to integrate a rapidly increasing number of freemen in an expanding industrial society.

Before 1835 it was fairly common for patriarchial masters to educate their slaves to varying degrees of attainment, and for zealous missionaries, and other interested persons stirred by humanitarian motives, to carry learning with religion and to establish some kind of school facilities for giving at least the rudiments.[2] Certain groups--particularly colonizationists who hoped to establish self-sustaining Negro communities in Haiti and Liberia, and sought leaders among the free Negroes who were willing or desired to expatriate themselves--made possible advanced training for individuals by planning and conducting courses in mathematics, biblical literature, and agriculture, and training exceptional students as ministers, teachers, and physicians. In 1817, for example, a school was opened at Passippany, New Jersey, to give a four-year course to Negro youth who showed "talent, discretion, and piety, and were able to read and write."[3] Northern colleges were influenced to admit prepared men. The first Negro college graduate received his degree from Bowdoin in 1828.[4]

The thirties, however, witnessed a general reaction to all phases of education. In the South the spread of slavery had been stimulated by the increasing demand for cotton; and a series of slave insurrections, traced to leaders who could read and write, had led to legislation prohibiting even the teaching of slaves, and by 1840 to the virtual abandonment of educational activity of any type in that section.[5] In the North the influx of fugitives and free Negroes raised the question of assimilation, brought anti-abolition riots, and made extremely difficult the progress of those who believed in and worked for the schooling of the race. Yet it was during this period that the real problem of higher education for Negroes was posed and faced, and the first steps taken toward establishing institutions for its solution. Two practically parallel phases of this subject must be considered--the academic and the vocational.

* * * * *

1. Good, Barr and Scates, Methodology of Educational Research.
2. C. G. Woodson, The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861 (Washington: Associated Negro Publishers, 1919).
3. Ibid., pp. 257 ff.
4. Ibid., p. 265.
5. Ibid., pp. 11, 14.

The Forward Movement, 1830-1861

The unwillingness of most academies and colleges to admit even qualified Negroes impressed upon abolitionists and freemen alike the necessity of establishing separate institutions for the race.[6] Although Northern institutions were more liberal and their policies produced some fruit, as is evident from Table 1, other means of supplying not only higher training, but elementary as well, were necessary.

Table 1[7]

NUMBER OF NEGROES GRADUATED FROM NORTHERN COLLEGES BEFORE 1865[8]

Period	Number of Graduates
1826-1830	2
1831-1835	0
1836-1840	0
1841-1845	2
1846-1850	3
1851-1855	5
1856-1860	14
1861-1865	14
TOTAL	40

The realization of academic and college education as such, however, was slowed up by the need for both elementary and practical education, a need that grew out of the social pattern in which the Negro found himself, and of his lack of training in basic occupational skills that would assure his economic status. In the pre-war period, consequently, the ideal toward which the advocates of higher education first worked was an institution that would combine labor with study, and thus have for the race an advantage over the older college with its aristocratic tradition and class distinction. Thus in its inception the Negro college combined vocational with academic training, and accepted the segregation of the race, not as desirable but as inevitable. The aim of this higher education was to strengthen the common school; to arouse in the Negro the desire for equal opportunity, and to open for him the doors of science and the arts, and ultimately to serve--as Yale and Harvard served the white race--"as the capstone of the educational system."[9] The first steps toward these objectives came, in the years between 1830 and 1860, by the organization of various institutions of learning--"advanced" in their ultimate goals, if not in their immediate practices.

The Origin of Vocational Training

In 1830 a convention for the Improvement of the Free People of Color was held in Philadelphia.[10] The colonization movement was denounced, and the free Negro was urged to bend his efforts toward the improvement of his race in this country, while a plan was adopted to found a manual-labor college at New Haven, Connecticut. This plan met direct and vigorous opposition, however, from the white citizens of New Haven, who resolved that:

> The founding of colleges for educating colored people is an unwarrantable and dangerous undertaking to the internal concerns of other states... the mayor, aldermen, common council, and freemen will resist the establishment of the proposed college in this state by every lawful means.[11]

This attitude is typical of much of that in the North, despite the growth of abolition sentiment, and is further illustrated by a practically contemporary incident. The

6. C. G. Woodson, The Education of the Negro Prior to 1861 (Washington: Associated Negro Publishers, 1919), p. 265.
7. Unless otherwise indicated the tables have been compiled from information collected in the investigation for this study.
8. Compiled from data given in The College-Bred Negro, edited by W. E. DuBois, Atlanta University Studies No. 5 (Atlanta: Atlanta University Press, 1900), p. 37.
9. Quoted in Woodson, op. cit., p. 266.
10. Ibid., p. 260.
11. Quoted in Paul Monroe, Cyclopedia of Education (New York: Macmillan Co., 1918), IV, 406; and The Liberator, July 9, 1831.

Noyes Academy of Canaan, New Hampshire, was to be converted into a manual-labor school, but "Fearing imaginary evils, these modern Canaanites destroyed the academy, dragging the building to a swamp with a hundred yoke of oxen."[12]

Yet there was some progress in this direction. In 1832 Richard Humphrey, a Quaker of Pennsylvania, left ten thousand dollars for the education of Negroes, that "they might be enabled to obtain a comfortable livelihood. . .and fulfill the duties of domestic and social life with reputation and fidelity as good citizens and pious men."[13] But it was not until 1842 that the trustees of the fund purchased a block of land, and a few students were given some manual training and taught the principles of farming. As early as 1846, however, it became evident this program was not successful, so the industrial training courses were abandoned and an evening school of an elementary type was established in their stead.[14]

With the object of enabling students to be self-supporting while in training, Gerrit Smith, in 1834, established the Peterboro Manual Labor School in Madison County, New York. Five years later the Friends planned an industrial school in Philadelphia as "the most successful method of elevating the moral and intellectual character of the descendants of Africa, as well as improving their social conditions."[15]

Although manual-labor schools continued to be established in various sections of the North and Northwest, they were not a success on the whole. They were overambitious in trying to make profitable vocational training, and to combine it also with academic study. Moreover they did not satisfy the ambitions of the race to be considered no longer "persons occupying a menial position, but as capable of the highest development of man."[16] (It should be noted in passing that this desire for cultural equality is one of the strongest factors in determining the trend toward the literary type of education, so clear throughout the whole pattern of Negro education.) As a result Negro support for the manual-labor schools was only partial. But perhaps the most important source of opposition came from the hostile attitude of white craftsmen toward admitting Negroes into the trades, not only as apprentices but as fellow workers. As one writer has observed:

> Prior to the war, white labor, North and South (while occasionally sympathetic) had adopted three attitudes toward Negro workers, (1) to openly oppose them, (2) to oppose their progress by a secret opposition which was founded upon color prejudice, and (3) to oppose the further extension of labor opportunities to free Negroes.[17]

Although in the South the barrier of prejudice was not so strong as in the North, since in this period many Negro mechanics, machinist, local manufacturers, contractors, and railroad men were employed, Georgia passed measures hostile to Negro craftsmen.[18] But in the North where white craftsmen were better organized, the opposition was more effective, and riots against Negroes occurred in Cincinnati, Philadelphia, New York, and Washington, resulting also in legislative interference. White artisans refused to accept colored boys as apprentices or to work with colored mechanics. It was practically impossible for a Negro to get his son "into a blacksmith's shop to blow the bellows and wield the sledge hammer."[19] Yet abolitionists and educators were urging trade

12. Woodson, op. cit., p. 291.
13. Quoted in D. O. W. Holmes, The Evolution of the Negro College (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934), p. 269.
14. Not until 1852 were day classes again maintained, when the school became known as the Institute for Colored Youth, where men and women of promise were trained for teaching and the ministry.
15. U. S. Bureau of Education, Special Report of the Commissioner of Education on the Condition and Improvement of the Public Schools in the District of Columbia (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1871), p. 379.
16. Quoted in Woodson, op. cit., p. 297.
17. C. H. Wesley, Negro Labor in the United States (New York: Vanguard Press, 1927), p. 83.
18. Woodson, op. cit., p. 284.
19. Frederick Douglass, The Life and Times of Frederick Douglass (London: Christian Age Office, 1882),p.248.

training for the race.[20]

The Views of Frederick Douglass on Race Education

One of the most ardent advocates of vocational training was Frederick Douglass, a leader of the free Negroes, who offered a plan for the solution of the problems of the contemporary type of vocational school and of those resulting from the labor situation.[21] For the industrial school where pupils earned merely "the means of obtaining an education in books," he would substitute "a series of workshops where colored men could learn some of the handicrafts, learn to work in iron, wood, and leather, while incidentally acquiring a plain English education." The learning of trades should not be subsidiary to conventional education, but a public effort on a large scale, articulated with the economic needs of the Negro. "Learn trades or starve," he advised. "Every day begins with the lesson that colored men must find new employment or. . .decay under the pressing wants to which their condition is bringing them."[22] He believed in higher education for his race, but not as the immediate problem since there were already enough institutions open to Negroes to provide the qualified with opportunities to secure professional training. He earnestly looked forward, however, to the state in the development of the Negro when, having passed through the intermediate stages of agriculture and the mechanic arts, the secondary school and college could be brought to contribute to his progress.

There were evidently ample facts to confirm the belief of Douglass that the best refutation of the proslavery argument was "the presentation of an industrious, enterprising, thrifty, and intelligent free black population." Although "contemporary opinions differ regarding the condition of the free Negroes in the middle of the nineteenth century,"[23] their economic and occupational status was apparently very low. Frances Kemble wrote, "They are free, certainly, but they are also degraded, the offscum and the offscouring of the very dregs of your society."[24] A study of the condition of the free Negroes of Philadelphia, made by the Quakers in 1849, bears out this testimony, and brought their

Table 2

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF 7,607 MEN AND WOMEN OF THE FREE NEGRO POPULATION OF PHILADELPHIA IN 1849[25]

Occupation	Number	Per cent
Men		
Mechanics	286	8.5
Laborers	1,581	47.0
Seafaring Men	240	7.1
Coachmen	276	8.2
Shopkeepers and Traders	166	4.9
Waiters, Cooks, etc.	551	16.5
Hairdressers	156	4.6
Miscellaneous	96	2.8
TOTAL	3,358	
Women		
Washwomen	1,970	46.6
Needlewomen	486	11.5
Cooks	173	4.1
Occupied at Home	290	6.8
Day Worker	786	18.6
Living in Families	156	3.6
Trade	213	5.0
Raggers and Boners	103	2.4
Miscellaneous	72	1.7
TOTAL	4,249	

20. In 1831 William Lloyd advised the race he championed, "Where you can put your children to trades. A good trade is better than a fortune because when once obtained it cannot be taken away." Convention for the Improvement of the Free People of Colour in the United States, Minutes of the Second Annual Convention (Philadelphia, 1831), p. 11.
21. Woodson, op. cit., p. 301.
22. Douglass, op. cit., p. 248.
23. Wesley, op. cit., p. 30.
24. Quoted in Wesley, op. cit., p.33.
25. Compiled from data given in ibid., pp. 17-18.

recommendation "that there should be more mechanics among the people of colour, and that more of their children should learn mechanical trades."[26]

An analysis of Table 2 seems to support the view that the salvation of the Negro lay through trades. Almost 50 per cent of the men were common laborers, and only 8.5 per cent were mechanics. Of the women 67.6 per cent were engaged as washwomen, raggers and boners, and day workers, with others doing equally unskilled work.

Data of a similar nature, although expressed in different terms, give some conception of the distribution of free Negroes in various occupational and professional categories in widely separated sections of the country.

If the localities are graded on the percentage basis of occupational opportunity, and ranked in their relative order, they indicate the following chance of economic opportunity: Charleston 1, New Orleans 2, Boston 3.5, Massachusetts 3.5, St. Louis 5, and New York 6. Thus free Negroes in the Southern cities appear to have had a greater economic chance, and one apparently based on occupational skills.

Although the road upward for the Negro was apparently through the trades, a better understanding of his vocational status can be secured by a comparative analysis of his occupations both as a slave and as freeman. Table 4 gives the percentages of each group in the various occupational categories in Charleston, South Carolina, based on the city census figures for 1848.

Table 3

PER CENT OF OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF FREE NEGROES IN VARIOUS LOCALITIES[27]

Locality	Unskilled	Semiskilled	Skilled	Business	Professional	Others	Total Number
New Orleans	14.6	6.2	61.3	7.4	10.3	0	1,792
New York City	76.3	6.9	7.5	.9	1.1	7.3	3,337
Boston	28.2	46.8	13.1	4.8	7.0	0	581
St. Louis	32.5	48.1	18.5	0	.8	0	384
Charleston	24.2	14.8	41.2	8.4	13.2	0	703
Massachusetts	42.8	23.7	21.0	2.0	8.6	0	2,300

While New York City had the largest percentage of its free population in unskilled occupations, and New Orleans in skilled pursuits, this relative emphasis can be accounted for in part by the large percentage of mulattos in the free population of the latter, and by the lack of social barriers, in contrast to the discrimination against Negroes practiced in New York and the greater competition of foreign labor as compared to that of the South.[28]

Table 4

COMPARATIVE OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF FREEDMEN AND SLAVES IN CHARLESTON, SOUTH CAROLINA[29]

	Free per cent	Slaves per cent
Unskilled	39.8	75.0
Semiskilled	18.2	11.4
Skilled	30.0	11.9
Business	2.5	0.2
Professional	9.2	0.1
TOTAL NUMBER	565	2,819

26. A Statistical Inquiry into the Condition of the People of Colour of the City. . .of Philadelphia (Philadelphia: Kite and Walton, 1849), p. 44.
27. Figures for New York and New Orleans were taken from the U. S. Bureau of the Census, vols. on Population for 1830, 1850, and 1870; St. Louis, Boston, Charleston, South Carolina, and Massachusetts were taken from C. H. Wesley, op. cit.
28. Wesley, op. cit., p. 78.
29. Wesley, op. cit., tables 3 and 4 were compiled by classifying the several occupations from the original sources under the categories of skilled, unskilled, etc. (B. K. Armstrong, "Negro Labor during the War," Unpublished Reports of Bureau of Inspection and Investigation of the Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.)

Development of Academic Training

Although, as we have already noted, much of the emphasis in this pre-war period, especially by the abolitionists, was on vocational training for the Negroes, efforts continued to further academic training. In 1849 Avery College at Alleghany City, Pennsylvania, was equipped for instruction in the various branches of natural science, and had a good library and a generous endowment. About 1851, in the hope of developing an adequate teachers' college, Miss Myrtilla Miner started an academy for girls in the District of Columbia, but not without the periodic and emphatic opposition of newspapers, which ridiculed the futility of affording Negro students "a degree of instruction so far above their social and political conditions."[30] In 1855 the Cincinnati Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church planned the organization of a college for the preparation of teachers and preachers, and in 1856 incorporated Wilberforce University, located near Xenia, Ohio. In the same year Ashmun Institute, now Lincoln University, in Chester County, Pennsylvania, was opened by the Presbytery of New Castle to educate Negro boys in the sciences, classics, and theology.

These institutions are just beginnings for higher education, and again it must be emphasized that most of the actual instruction was on an elementary level. During the same period, and as anti-slavery sentiment grew, an increasing number of Northern colleges admitted qualified Negroes, who proved by their actions that the race was responsive to instruction. Certain educational institutions were also founded with a definite policy against race and caste discrimination. Oberlin, established in the thirties, was the model for Berea College in Kentucky, organized by the American Missionary Association in 1857 to sustain free teaching and free schools, and as an anti-slavery and anti-sectarian institution. The motto of the college, "God has made of one blood all nations of men," reveals the intention for equal racial education.[31]

In this section we have perhaps lingered too long over the first stages of Negro higher education but they are important since they establish the pattern for the next period when the educational problem had to be answered for masses rather than for individuals, and in the South under different conditions and at a time when any solution was difficult because of prevailing passions and animosities. What had been done in the North very naturally served as a basis from which successive stages could develop. And it was the North which was to bear the burden of Negro education for some years.

The Establishment of Folk Schools

The situation created by the firing on Fort Sumter and the Emancipation Proclamation made immediate some new answer to the whole question of Negro education for the nation as a whole. It was such an answer that the Union military forces, Northern charitable societies, various church boards, the Negro church, and the Freedmen's Bureau sought to give during the course of the war and in the early years of reconstruction, when they were confronted with the task of organizing and carrying out temporary measures to meet the life needs of the freedmen. Some eighty societies were engaged in the work of culture and character building--conducted mainly through the establishment of "folk schools" which, although frequently called universities and colleges, functioned of necessity on an elementary level and overemphasized the classical type of education.[32]

This period of the new era is marked by confusion, for unfortunately many of these well-wishers were so filled with zeal for their labors that facts were not always adequately studied before action was taken. Yet any just evaluation of these activities and their effects must take into consideration the low economic and educational status of the freedmen, their eager desire to learn and to share not only in the educational advantages but in the very type of education that their

30. Quoted in Woodson, op. cit., p. 267.

31. Berea continued to educate both races until 1904, when the state legislature passed a law forbidding the mingling of the two races in the same department of any institution, and thus ending the biracial experiment in this Southern state. Holmes, op. cit., p. 81.

32. Ibid., pp. 10, 12.

masters had known, the wide expanse of country to be served educationally, and, perhaps most important, the contrasting ideas and traditions of the white people of North and South respecting Negro education.[33]

By 1870 some order had come out of the confusion, and both the policies and the need for higher education were fairly well defined. The activities of the Freedmen's Bureau were nearly completed; its education work had indicated the demand for 20,000 teachers to care for the immediate requirements of the elementary schools,[34] and it had financially aided various institutions of "higher learning" already established. The church boards which had actively participated in bringing teachers and schools to the ex-slaves during the war and the first chaotic days of reconstruction had profited from these experiences, and had formulated certain convictions and aims. Although these were not identical in all instances, perhaps the most adequate, and certainly typical, were those of the American Missionary Association, which also continued to share largely in the responsibilities of preparing "four million freedmen for effective citizenship."[35] Consequently, the policies of this association throw definite light on the forces molding the future of the Negro college.

Policies of the American Missionary Association

Confirmed by experience in its belief that the black people could benefit by the same influences and methods of discipline that had proved their power for the other races, and convinced of the capacities of the Negro for such growth, while also aware of the fact that no race can be permanently dependent upon another for its ultimate development, the Association sought to teach the race how to save itself and how to work out its own future with its own teachers in permanent educational institutions.[36] There was a very clear conception of the nature of these schools, and how they should accomplish their ends. Beginning at the lower level, under white teachers (mainly from the North), these schools were to prepare Negroes to take over the teaching in the elementary schools by introducing teacher training instruction in the advanced elementary grades. Some of these schools were to be gradually advanced to a secondary level, and later to collegiate grade, for higher education was implied for the exceptional pupils who should be prepared for advanced teaching and the professions. Thus the organic structure of a system of education was to be built up.[37] It should be added, however, that the program of the Association did not neglect other types of education, for the value of trained hands was being clearly demonstrated at Hampton Institute, which was already proving a success under the auspices of this organization.

Growth of Academic Institutions and the Rise of Industrial Schools

During the next two decades, in fact, just this process of evolution took place in the development of the Negro "colleges." In the seventies schools continued

33. On the basis of the Seventh United States Census, it has been estimated that not more than ten per cent of the Negro population at the time of the Emancipation Proclamation could read. The South in general was divided on the subject of Negro education. Although the lower classes opposed any education, the upper classes realized its importance but felt that the form, method and teaching should be left to the Southern white educators, for they were convinced that teachers from the North were instilling ideas of social equality, distrust, and even hatred in the minds of the colored people. The North, particularly the church groups, adopted an aggressive attitude. It was the duty of a Christian Nation to provide education for the Negro as a citizen and a human being. Any seeming inferiority was the result of slavery, not incapacity. Without education the Negro would become a national menace, and since the South neither desired nor had the means to give the Negro the opportunity he needed, the North must assume the responsibility. Holmes, op. cit., pp. 68 ff.
34. Ibid., p. 45.
35. Ibid., p. 93.
36. A. F. Beard, quoted in ibid., p. 94.
37. Holmes, op. cit., pp. 94 f.

to be organized, which were mainly elementary in character, and which were to reach the secondary level in the eighties and collegiate status later. As was natural, they stressed the classical curriculum that had been taken over from their New England prototypes, at the expense of subject matter which seemed to many to be much better adapted to the actual needs of the Negro, who must find his place in the growing industrialization of the South.[38]

In the eighties, consequently, industrial courses began to assume greater prominence, even in those institutions which were most concerned with preparing students for teaching and for the ministry. Shops were established; courses in home economics were offered. Those who advocated vocational training felt that what was needed was a reliable skilled working class who would ensure an economic foundation--"Let us have therefore not colleges but schools to teach the technique of industry and to make men learn by doing."[39] Moreover, several other factors encouraged this development, among them the John L. Slater Fund (founded 1882) which favored with subsidies institutions offering work in agriculture and the vocational subjects, and the passage of the Second Morrill Act (1890), the basis for the majority of Negro land-grant colleges. "From the very first," writes one critic, "in nearly all the schools some attention had been given to training in handwork, but now was this training first raised to a dignity that brought it in direct touch with the South's magnificent industrial development, and given emphasis that reminded black folk that before the Temple of Knowledge swing the gates of Toil."[40]

Establishment of the State-Supported Colleges

The significant trend of the nineties, then, was the establishment of the state-supported Negro land-grant colleges. Although implicitly implied in the provisions of the First Morrill Act (1862), which set aside funds for the founding and support of educational institutions devoted primarily to agriculture and the mechanic arts, only four states had shared their grants with Negro schools. The Second Act, however, made such a division compulsory in all states where separate race schools were legally required. Within ten years all had complied, many by taking over privately supported institutions. Needless to say, these newly designated state colleges also faced the same educational problems that we have been outlining, and for some time they taught on the secondary level, showed little uniformity of organization, adapted their curricula to student demands, and, in fact, groped their way without clear policies or objectives, and only after 1916 achieved collegiate grade in any of their work.[41] This work will be discussed in more detail later.

Educational Doctrines of Dr. DuBois before 1905

At the turn of the century both a summary of the progress of Negro education and an opinion of its requirements came from the able pen of Dr. W. E. B. DuBois,[42] already a leader of his race and a champion of the cause of the Negro college. Having been educated at Fisk, Harvard, and abroad, he himself knew the value of the higher education he advocated for the "talented tenth," or upper classes of Negroes, in place of vocational training for all. In this he stood in direct opposition to another leader, Booker T. Washington, the founder of Tuskegee Institute, patterned after the Hampton plan.

With a full realization of the part

38. The value of these sectarian schools has been earnestly questioned on the ground that they fostered religious bigotry, and rivalry, and that they intensified race hatred and widened the chasm between the races, as well as failing to contribute anything to the real education or social and economic position of the Negro. See W. H. Thomas, The American Negro (New York: Macmillan Co., 1901) pp. 240-41, and E. B. Reuter, The American Race Problem (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927), p. 266. The opposite point of view is presented by Professor Kelly Miller. See W. E. B. DuBois, "The Talented Tenth," in The Negro Problem, A Symposium (New York: James Pott & Co., 1903), pp. 33ff.

39. W. E. B. DuBois, "Education and Work," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. I (1932), p. 63.

40. W. E. B. DuBois, The Souls of Black Folk (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1903), p. 94.

41. Holmes, op. cit., pp. 150ff.

42. DuBois, The Souls of Black Folk, op. cit.

that this then recent industrial education was playing in the welfare of the Negro, DuBois questioned whether it gave "the final and sufficient answer in the training of the Negro race"; whether it could "provide for the larger spiritual values and objectives needed in social developments."[43] There must be that "pull," he felt, to lift the masses--a lift which could not come from industrial training as such. It was the welfare of the individual, not of industrialism, that was the end of education. If there was criticism of the "anomaly" of the growth of Negro education, it had a logical answer. Vocational schools needed common schools to give the rudiments; these in turn required teachers, who must be trained in normal schools and colleges, and they must be Negro institutions, for the South could tolerate only "the social separateness of the races."[44]

The Atlanta University Conferences

One phase of this emphasis on the vocational was the controversy as to whether the college graduate could succeed. In 1900 came the first of two studies on the "College-bred" Negro made under the guidance of DuBois, then professor of Sociology at Atlanta University--one of the best of the Negro colleges--to survey the results of the efforts for higher education, and to answer at least partially, the question of whether the "upper tenth" could succeed, and so determine whether college education was the proper thing for the Negro. Tabulating the occupations of 1,312 Negro college graduates, he found (Table 5) that more than 50 per cent of them were teachers and that 81.2 per cent were in the professional categories of teaching, medicine, the ministry, and law. The figures of this occupational distribution "illustrate vividly the function of the college-bred Negro. He is, as he ought to be, the group leader." In trying to furnish teachers of their own race and blood for "five millions and more of ignorant people," the Negro college had made its greatest contribution. "In this work the college-bred Negroes were first teachers, and then teachers of teachers," and here it is that the broad culture of college work had been of particular value "in giving a wider knowledge of life and its meaning" to the race.[46]

Table 5

PER CENT OF OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF 1,312 NEGRO COLLEGE GRADUATES IN 1900[45]

Occupations	Per cent
Teachers	53.4
Clergymen	16.8
Physicians	6.3
Students	5.6
Lawyers	4.7
Government Service	4.0
Business	3.6
Farmers and Artisans	2.7
Editors, Secretaries, and Clerks	2.4
Miscellaneous	.5

The committee made several observations and general recommendations for Negro education as a whole, advocating common schools and manual training for the masses, noting the demand for industrial, technical, and trade schools, and for higher training for the talented as leaders. This demand for leaders, it felt, should be met by maintaining in the South several colleges adequately equipped to train thoroughly teachers, preachers, professional men, and captains of industry. Curricula taken over from the New England colleges of the sixties, and remaining unchanged, should be modified by giving a larger place to English, history, and natural science.[47]

Ten years later (1910) the opinions and recommendations of a second conference on the same questions had not materially changed. There was still emphasis on the increasing and pressing demand for college-trained men and women who would

43. DuBois, The Souls of Black Folk, op. cit., pp. 92-93.
44. Ibid., pp. 95-96.
45. The College-Bred Negro, edited by W. E. B. DuBois, Atlanta University Publications No. 5 (Atlanta: Atlanta University Press, 1900), p. 63.
46. Ibid., p. 65.
47. Ibid., pp. 111ff.

receive a broad cultural education as provided in the curricula then in vogue--with, however, the gradual reduction of the amount of Latin and Greek and an increase in natural history, English, sociology, and history. Every state should have one liberally endowed Negro college, and there should be more cooperation between existing institutions to avoid duplication of work, and "perfect honesty" in living up to entrance requirements. The great need for Negro public high schools was stressed, and vocational training should be preceded by as much cultural training as possible.[48]

Surveys of Negro Institutions of Higher Education

In 1917 the Phelps Stokes Fund completed a survey of Negro higher education which revealed the actual status of these Negro colleges and the conditions under which they were compelled to operate.[49] As a result more adequate support was forthcoming from the various interested Northern educational foundations and from the Southern state governments, while more critical scrutiny was made of the whole school system to the end of a planned and rational improvement.[50]

In 1928 the findings of this survey were checked and added to by the survey which the United States Government made of the same institutions, especially of the land-grant colleges.[51] The disclosures of these studies stimulated efforts to raise standards, so that Negroes would not feel their colleges inferior to white colleges,[52] and to meet premedical requirements set up by the American Medical Association[53] and the various sectional rating bodies.

After 1930 the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States agreed to accept responsibility for the examination and rating of the Negro colleges in its area. By 1934 approximately fifty colleges had their degrees granted academic recognition, although much was still needed to improve instruction and plants.[54] Recent developments have made two things clear: the need of careful study of the actual local situations and also closer cooperation to avoid wasteful duplication of institutions and services offered.

It is neither feasible nor pertinent to this study to examine in detail the abundance of educational material briefly summarized or suggested in the preceding pages. A closer scrutiny of several of the more typical of these schools and colleges, however, and a further glance at the land-grant colleges, as to their development, aims, and accomplishments, and to the adjustments which they have made to changing conditions, will make more definite the factors already indicated. Howard University, Talladega College, and Hampton Institute are representative of the best of Negro education in their respective fields. Moreover, they show something of the different influences affecting Negro education as a whole.

Howard University

Among the first group of colleges and universities which "sprang up like mushrooms" with the encouragement and substantial aid of the Freedmen's Bureau in the years between 1866 and 1870 was Howard University, which may serve to illustrate both the ambitions and problems of the best of these academic institutions. The attempt to meet the elementary educational problems of the large numbers of freedmen who flocked into the nation's capital after the abolition of slavery, quickly made it apparent that some provision must be made to educate Negroes adequately for leadership,

48. The College-Bred Negro, No. 15, 1910, p. 7.
49. Negro Education: A Study of the Private and Higher Schools for Colored People in the United States, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1916, Nos. 38-39. 2 vols. (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917).
50. Holmes, op. cit., p. 13.
51. Survey of Negro Colleges and Universities, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1928, No. 7 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1929).
52. Unpublished files of Meharry Medical College, Nashville, Tenn.
53. American Medical Association, Reports on Rating of Negro Colleges (Chicago: American Medical Association, 1922).
54. Holmes, op. cit., p. 198.

particularly as preachers and teachers. Consequently, in 1866 a small group of private citizens took steps to provide courses in evidences, biblical history and interpretation, geography and history, and physiology, and applied to the Freedmen's Bureau for quarters, fuel, and light.[55] The charter of 1867, however, included university privileges and provisions for the establishment of departments of theology, law, and medicine. Classes opened first in the normal and preparatory departments. The intent, from the beginning, to make available college education to those qualified is evident from the fact that, during the tenure of President Howard (1868-1873) and his temporary successor, John M. Langston (1873-1876), these departments were actually in existence with admission requirements equivalent to those prevailing in the standard classical college of the period. These requirements, also found at other Negro colleges, account in part for the small enrollment of students of college grade, and for the large number at lower levels.[56] (In 1876 there were thirty-five college students and four graduates.) When each institution was faced with the necessity of preparing its own students, college work could only be a major concern when the whole educational level of Negro schools in the South could give secure foundations.

The development of Howard, as of similar institutions, was conditioned by grave financial problems. The history of its efforts to gain adequate subsidies reflects somewhat the growth of general interest in Negro education and its consequent progress in gaining support. After the demise of the Freedmen's Bureau (1872) and the removal of its financial aid, Howard University passed through a period of great difficulty, but, under the able leadership of President William W. Patton (1876-1889), its solvency was preserved, and the Federal Government inaugurated the practice of granting annual appropriations to the University, although almost annually for forty years a Southern member of the House of Representatives would make a point of order against the appropriation, and have it stricken from the bill, to which it would be restored again in the Senate by some sympathetic member.[57] Despite this opposition, these appropriations increased almost 200 per cent between 1906 and 1912, while the many liberal grants after the World War made possible an extensive building program.[58]

This support is also evidence of greater sympathy for and understanding of the educational work of the university. Although the desire to win the Negro vote for congressional elections may have had some share in this interest, there is no doubt that the Southern states were aware that Howard was saving them considerable expense in the education of their Negro college students, and there was an increasing realization of the value of trained Negro doctors and nurses in relation to the Negro health problem and its vital connection to that of the whites.[59]

From the beginning the work of Howard has been largely academic and professional in character, as is clear from the distribution of a sample of 1,508 degrees of those granted between 1875 and 1934 (shown in Table 6).[60] Of these 40 per cent were medical, dental, and pharmaceutical.

In 1918 the academic work was reorganized by discontinuing all sub-collegiate studies, and by creating a junior college and an upper division consisting of schools of applied science, commerce and finance, education, journalism, liberal arts, music, and a graduate division. In 1925, as a result of the survey made by Dean Leonard of

55. Holmes, op. cit., pp. 45ff.

56. Ibid., p. 54. Between 1866 and 1870 there were fifty-one Negro graduates from all institutions, both white and Negro. The College-Bred Negro, op. cit., p. 37. Only 7 per cent of all degrees granted Negroes in sixty-four years (prior to 1934) were in the period between 1870-1894. The Crisis, 1915-1934.

57. Congressional Record, 1879-1936 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1879-1986), passim. No doubt this opposition on the part of Southern members was, in part, owing to prejudice, and in part to political expediency as a gesture to the folks back home. In 1928, however, Congress passed a law granting annual appropriations to Howard.

58. Holmes, op. cit., p. 57.

59. The Crisis, 1915-1934.

60. Data based on the study of a random sample of graduates from each department of Howard University (by the author, 1934) Registrar's Office, Howard University, Washington, D.C.

Table 6

DISTRIBUTION OF 1,508 DEGREES GRANTED AT HOWARD UNIVERSITY IN TWENTY-YEAR PERIODS, 1875-1934

	1875-1894	1895-1914	1915-1934	Total	Per cent
A. B.	2	29	270	301	19.9
B. S.	-	1	236	237	15.7
M. S.	-	-	9	9	.5
M. A.	-	4	14	18	1.0
M. D.	15	49	140	204	13.5
LL. B.	16	72	112	200	13.2
Ph. G.	3	55	147	205	13.5
D. D. S.	4	41	157	202	13.3
Mus. B.	-	2	30	32	2.1
LL. M.	1	1	-	2	.1
B. D.	16	29	53	98	6.4
TOTALS	57	283	1,168	1,508	
PER CENT	3.5	18.6	77.1		

Table 7

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENROLLED AND NUMBER OF GRADUATES FROM VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS OF HOWARD UNIVERSITY IN 1931-1932

School or College	Number Enrolled	Number of Graduates
Liberal Arts	678	98
Education	746	131
Applied Science	68	6
Music		
Degree Students	61	3
Special Students	21	
School of Medicine		
College of Medicine	221	55
College of Dentistry	53	17
College of Pharmacy	33	9
School of Law	62	17
School of Religion		
Degree Students	45	8
Correspondence Students	282	
Graduate Students	194	18
TOTAL	2,464	362

Teachers College, Columbia University, the plan of organization was altered.[61] (Note the divisions in the arrangement of Table 7.) A further change has occurred since 1933 (no doubt due to the influence of Mr. Abraham Flexner, Chairman of the Board of Trustees) so that some of the schools have been consolidated; for instance, the School of Education has been made a department in the School of Liberal Arts.

Both the enrollment and the number of degrees granted have shown a marked increase over those of the early twenties, although the depression has caused a drop in recent years. In 1925 there were 2,132 students; Table 7 gives both the enrollment and number of graduates for 1931; in 1934 the registration had dropped to 1,500.

Talladega College

The history of another liberal arts college confirms the same educational needs and illustrates much the same methods of meeting them. Talladega College, a typical American Missionary Association school, was founded at Talladega, Alabama, in 1867.[62] At first the three R's were taught, so that those who learned could return home to teach them to others. Then classes in biblical study were begun to train ministers. By 1879 plans were laid for college work, but a little more than a decade passed before an outline of the work appeared in its catalog. As a liberal arts college, its first degree was given in 1865.[63] The gradual growth of the collegiate enrollment is indicated in Table 8, and reflects the slow but steady improvement of secondary education in the state and, in fact, in the entire South, and the effects of college rating-association requirements.[64]

Hampton Institute

While the race "colleges" and "universities" were trying to bring a classical

61. Holmes, op. cit., p. 58.
62. Ibid., pp. 97ff.
63. It has remained a liberal arts college and today has a set-up similar to the Chicago University plan.
64. Reports of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Nashville, Tenn.).

Table 8[65]

ENROLLMENT IN COLLEGE AND TOTAL ENROLLMENT, TALLADEGA COLLEGE AT FIVE-YEAR INTERVALS FROM 1892 TO 1932*

Years	Enrollment	
	College	Total
1892	2	510
1897	10	693
1902	23	534
1907	32	613
1912	30	722
1917	57	628
1922	123	511
1927	187	563
1932	221	443

*Data taken from the annual reports of the A.M.A. for the years indicated.

culture to the Negroes, and to provide teachers, preachers, and professional men, the worth of industrial training was being proved in an institution which was to become the pattern for similar projects, and to raise itself to collegiate level in the 1920's.

Although the American Missionary Association founded the first "contraband school" (so named from the refugee Negroes who escaped to the Union lines) at Hampton, Virginia, in 1861,[66] it was under the strong leadership of General Samuel C. Armstrong, who had commanded colored Union troops during the war, that the educational policies of Hampton Institute were formulated and carried out over a period of years. When he took charge in 1866 he brought not only the conviction that education was the only hope for the Negro, who needed to have "gumption" and the guiding instinct instilled into him, but also a clear conception of what this education should be. One of his biographers justly evaluates his understanding of the race needs:

> He knew of the slave both what the slaveholder knew--that to put a veneer of learning on the plantation Negro would be dangerous nonsense--and what the Northern friends of the Negro knew--that, as a human being, the Negro deserved a fair chance in life. He saw that between the university and no school there was a middle course in which lay the hope of the race.[67]

With this knowledge, his personal observations of the accomplishments of the Hilo Manual Labor School in Hawaii (a boarding school for native boys who paid their expenses by manual labor and acquired in exchange some "book learning"), and his strong confidence in the disciplinary value of strict routine, General Armstrong planned a twelve-hour program of work and study and drill that was to teach both boys and girls the fundamentals of knowledge that would equip them as leaders in their communities, and give them skilled hands that would bring them economic security.[68]

Although a somewhat similar combination of literary education and manual labor had failed at Oberlin, for the white students were unaccustomed to the hard work required to carry both farm labor and study, General Armstrong was not deterred. He "saw that the Negro, inured to toil, tough in physical fiber, and without the highly developed American nervous system," could undertake a much more strenuous daily routine than could the white student, and he also believed "that by a certain skillful arrangement of work and study he could avoid the failure of either farm or book work,"[69] and also make possible coeducation --another vital factor in student development.

The plan took definite shape by 1870, when the Institute was chartered, and continued in effect for twenty years. Under careful supervision the students did a stated amount of manual labor in the shop, on the farm, and in the home, not only to earn their education, but to learn from labor the lessons of reliability, strength of will, respect for the dignity of toil, and habits of regularity. Only practical

65. Holmes, op. cit., p. 99.
66. Ibid., p. 84
67. E. A. Talbot, Samuel Chapman Armstrong, a Biographical Study (New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1904).
68. Ibid., pp. 156-57.
69. Ibid., pp. 158-59.

activities were undertaken, and things made that could be used or sold.

The three-year curriculum was designed for the same ends, and nothing was included that could not be put into daily use in after life. It consisted in the first year of the basic school subjects, which were continued in the second year with the addition of courses in business, chemistry, agriculture, and exercises in teaching; and in the third year with reading, composition, oratory, and bookkeeping.[70]

Yet it was a progressive plan. When the need arose, special training would be given to qualified students, and a first-class technical department would follow with "special class-training in mechanical principles for the higher walks of labor."[71] Its aim for the students was to help them find and value the place in life which they could capably fill, or, in General Armstrong's words to them: "Spend your life in doing what you can well. If you can teach, teach. If you can't teach, but can cook well, do that. . . .Do what you can do well and people will respect it and will respect you."[72]

During these early years, however, Hampton trained on the sub-collegiate level, placing its emphasis on the common industrial trades, and on the preparation of teachers, frequently for the same vocational fields. But the founders saw the broader aspects of education, as the charter indicates in defining the purposes of the institution:

> The instruction of youth in the various common-school, academic and collegiate branches, the best methods of teaching the same, and the best mode of practical industry in its application to agriculture and the mechanical arts; and for carrying out these purposes, the said trustees may establish any departments or schools in the said institution.[73]

From the practical standpoint the undertaking was a success,[74] and was approved by those who saw the solution of the Negro's problem in industrial education. Many Negroes, however, looked upon it with suspicion, for they saw in it an industrial enslavement, degrading class education, and a further race segregation. Many students, consequently, sought not the manual training of Hampton but the intellectual.[75]

The history of Hampton during the past four decades has been that of its transformation from an industrial school to a vocational arts college, of its progress in raising its educational standards from the elementary and secondary to the collegiate and graduate levels, and of its consistent attempts to adapt its educational program to the changing needs of its students.

This fulfilment of the original ideal as expressed in the charter has been gradual, beginning with the improvement of the quality of work and the raising of the requirements for graduation, and has continued as the general public elementary and secondary schools have become more adequate and professional requirements, especially in teaching, more exacting.[76] For only by such progress could its graduates find occupational opportunities in the higher ranks.

The transition from an institute of grammar and high-school grade to a college is clearly shown in its development from the date of the beginning of the World War. At that time 53 per cent of the students were in classes of grammar-school grade, while the curriculum prescribed for the remaining 47 per cent of high-school grade--for there were none of college status--was equivalent to about three years of the modern high school. Before 1913 a graduate who had finished a curriculum equal to two years of a present-day high school was granted a teacher's certificate.

70. Holmes, op. cit., p. 46.
71. Talbot, op. cit., pp. 212f.
72. Ibid., p. 190.
73. Quoted in Holmes, op. cit., p. 85.
74. In 1886 persons in the vicinity complained that they were being oppressed by the industrial competition of the school, but an investigating committee endorsed the school. Talbot, op. cit., pp. 212f.
75. Talbot, op. cit., pp. 210ff.
76. Data in this and the following paragraph come from the article "Sixty-second Annual Report of the Principal to the Trustees of Hampton. . .Institute," by George P. Phenix, published in Southern Workman, June 1930, pp. 257ff.

In 1923 the schools of agriculture, education, and home economics were combined to form the Teachers College of Hampton Institute; and in 1930 the equivalent of one year of college work was required for a teacher's certificate. In the same year 64 per cent of the students were of college grade, with none below the secondary level, and since 1930 that percentage has steadily increased.

Both the increase in the work of collegiate grade and the general type of the work now given at Hampton are evident from Table 9. The emphasis and trend of student interest is also apparent. Of the number of degrees granted, 31 per cent were in education, 18 per cent in library work, 13 per cent in business, and 12 per cent in agriculture. Where the school of agriculture had 55 per cent of the total number of graduates in the four-year period from 1923 to 1926, in that from 1931 to 1934 it had only 8 per cent. A comparison of the four-year periods from 1927 to 1930 and from 1931 to 1934, shows that the percentage of graduates has increased as follows:

Table 9

DEGREES GRANTED FROM THE VARIOUS SCHOOLS OF HAMPTON IN FOUR-YEAR PERIODS FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE COLLEGE IN 1923[77]

Schools	1923-26	1927-30	1931-34	Total
Education (M.A. Degree)			8	8
Agriculture	16	25	34	75
Building Construction		8	22	30
Business		15	65	80
Education	13	65	124	202
Home Economics		27	89	116
Library Science		28	63	91
Music			23	23
Trade Teacher Training			17	17
TOTAL	29	168	445	642

School of Business	62	per cent
Home Economics	53	" "
Building Construction	47	" "
Library Science	39	" "
Education	29	" "
Agriculture	12	" "

Agriculture and education show the least increase.

Through more adequate school preparation, better economic status, and the desire to finish their education as quickly as possible, students have brought about a gradual change in the internal organization of the Institute. The number of students following the work-year program has also dropped. In 1915, 77 per cent of all men students spent their first year doing unskilled work during the day, and attending classes in the evening: in 1930 there were only 28 per cent. As a result, many of the tasks performed by students (such as the laundry, formerly done by the girls in the work-year class) are now done by outside help.[78] If parents are financially able to put their children through school, they do not work, although many still pay a part, or all, of their school expenses by their labor.

The development of Hampton has shown that there is not an impassable gulf between liberal arts colleges and vocational colleges, as many educators have believed, but that the two can be integrated. What this integration means is well expressed by

77. Data secured by the author from the unpublished records of the Bureau of Records, Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

In explanation of the few degrees granted in agriculture the Director of the School of Agriculture, in an interview with the author, brought out the fact that there is little or no room for more commercial farmers. This interview left the impression that the saturation point has been reached in agriculture. Mr. Campbell, the head of the Negro division of the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, also told the writer that the trend of Negroes is away from the farm and that this trend will continue and should be encouraged. One wonders what is to become of Negro agriculture and what should be the objectives of the college program of instruction in this field.

78. Phenix, op. cit., p. 259. When visiting Hampton in 1935, the writer observed that milking machines were being used on the farm dairy and was told that students objected to milking. It was also stated that the machines saved expense.

Aery in stating the aims of modern Hampton:

> I. . .state these aims. . .in indicating how Hampton has attempted to combine the literary and the technical, the vocational and the nonvocational elements in education. These aims are as follows: (1) It has aimed to impart the essentials of a Christian education. (2) It has aimed to train individuals to teach; to farm and to train farmers; to work in industry and in the trades, as well as teach industrial arts and the trades; to build and make good homes; to serve as librarians; to care for the sick and serve in the field of public-health nursing; to prepare indirectly for the practice of law, medicine, and dentistry; to serve in social work; to lead in athletics and recreation; to sing and play leading instruments; to build and improve schools in urban and rural districts; and to become respected citizens active in community improvements. (3) It has aimed to train men and women, through systematic work and study, constant discipline, and cheerful service, for efficient civic and social living. (4) It has aimed to combine mental and physical labor. (5) It has aimed to stimulate among youth a sense of economic and social interdependence. (6) It has aimed to train community leaders who are levelheaded and intelligently aware of social and economic needs.[79]

There is little doubt that Hampton has done much to fulfill these aims, for its dynamic curriculum, ever changing to keep pace with the social pattern; its endeavor to diagnose and integrate the personalities of its students; its readiness to attack unexplored fields of vocational and academic knowledge, its disciplined mixed faculty and student body, its combination of the vocational and academic, its attempt to meet students at the level at which it finds them and to educate them for life, all mark it as an effective college.

The Land-Grant Colleges

The nature of the state-supported land-grant colleges and their intended place in the educational field is suggested by the fact that from 1872 to 1920 Hampton Institute was designated as the land-grant college of Virginia.[80] Under the Morrill Acts, public funds were to be given to "colleges" furnishing theoretical and practical education in agriculture and the mechanic arts (although other subjects were not excluded), but the actual development of the institutions was conditioned by the same factors that shaped the privately maintained schools, which themselves profoundly influenced these public schools. In fact, a large majority of the land-grant colleges were private institutions taken over by the states and often somewhat hastily adapted to meet at least the letter of the law by the addition of agricultural and mechanical courses, even if often of secondary grade. Liberal arts programs of the traditional classical content were kept, with the inclusion of more modern language and science as time passed.

The growth of the land-grant colleges into collegiate status followed the pattern of most of the liberal arts colleges, and was hindered by the general level of Negro education in the South, the widespread prejudice against the vocation curricula and in favor of the familiar cultural program given in the private institutions, and by the lack of technically trained teachers. The absence of a prepared and interested student body naturally resulted in the effort to meet the demand as it existed. Consequently, teachers (mainly elementary) were trained, manual-training and shop courses were given, home economics programs were established; business and commercial subjects were offered. But up to 1916 collegiate levels were not achieved in most phases of the work.[81]

79. William Anthony Aery, "Hampton's Contribution to Education," Southern Workman, August, 1935, p. 237.
80. Material for this section is mainly adapted from the U. S. Bureau of Education, "Negro Land-Grant Colleges," Survey of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Vol. II, Part X (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930).
81. Holmes, op. cit., p. 152.

Since that period, and especially after the Government survey of 1928, these colleges, together with other Negro institutions, have been making concerted efforts to raise their standards and to offer a more uniform quality and type of work. Despite the fact that the attempts to bring them to the full status of the state agricultural and mechanical college have not fully succeeded, they have gained strength and prestige.[82] Their main dilemma, like that of the liberal arts and vocational colleges, has been brought about by curricula offerings. They have been forced to try to combine the stricter types of professional courses in agriculture and mechanic arts with those of a purely vocational character into an effective college program. Among the colleges of this group, consequently, there has been a variety of experimentation to this end.

Yet this constructive experimenting has been handicapped by the small collegiate enrollment in technical departments, the absence of the expensive equipment required for advanced work in mechanics and engineering, and a dearth of expertly trained teaching personnel. Occupational opportunities have also been a deterring factor. Little opportunity, for example, has existed for Negro engineers. As a result these institutions have tried to develop courses of college grade within the fields of mechanic arts, trades, and industries that might be pursued profitably by their graduates--such as auto mechanics, building construction, power-plant engineering, and industrial management.

What has actually occurred in curricula offerings is apparent from Tables 10 and 11. Up to 1928 the tendency was to make the arts and science unit the general service division for teacher training.

Of the students enrolled in these schools 51.9 per cent were in arts and science, while 87 per cent of all the degrees granted were in this field, with 67.56 in science. The mechanic arts had an enrollment of 6 per cent of all students, but only 2.3 per cent of the degrees granted were in this field. Home economics had 12 per cent of the enrollment, but only 2 per cent of the degrees. In per cents the ratios of

Table 10

ENROLLMENT BY SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS IN THE NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGE IN 1928[83]

Subject	No. Enrolled	Percentage
Agriculture	338	9.1
Mechanic Arts	225	6.1
Home Economics	457	12.4
Education	786	21.3
Arts and Sciences	1,919	51.9
Nursing	26	
TOTAL	3,751	

Table 11

NUMBER OF DEGREES GRANTED BY DEPARTMENTS IN LAND-GRANT COLLEGES IN 1928[84]

Kind of Degree	Number	Per cent
A. B.	60	20.26
B. S.	200	67.56
B. S. in Agriculture	12	4.05
B. S. in Business Administration	2	.67
B. S. in Mechanic Arts	7	2.36
B. S. in Home Economics	6	2.06
A. B. in Education	6	2.02
B. S. in Education	1	.33
B. S. in Music	2	.67
TOTAL	296	

the degrees granted to department enrollment were: home economics 16, mechanic arts 22, agriculture 44. The turnover in home economics is partially owing to the major requirement of chemistry, to the large classes, and to the fact that many girls who do not care to major in it, take some work in this field.

The continued trend away from practical courses is suggested by the figures of Table 12, which indicate a 7 per cent decrease in these studies. Hampton, it will be recalled, showed the same trend.

82. Holmes, op. cit., p. 201.
83. "Negro Land-Grant Colleges," op. cit., p. 902.
84. Ibid., p. 829.

Table 12

COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF PRACTICAL AND LIBERAL ARTS AND SCIENCE COURSES GIVEN IN NEGRO LAND-GRANT COLLEGES IN 1928 AND IN 1932

Year	Practical	Per cent of Practical	Literary and Scientific	Per cent of Literary and Scientific
1928	67	72	27	28
1932	67	65	35	35

Perhaps one of the shaping forces in the direction of cultural work has been the increased enrollment resulting from the shift of students from private institutions where cultural courses predominated--a shift due in part to economic conditions and to favorable rating by the Southern Association of Colleges, as well as to the improved standards and the more adequate preparation now given by public colleges for pre-professional schools.

Table 13

COLLEGE ENROLLMENTS IN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE NEGRO INSTITUTIONS IN 1928 AND IN 1932

Year	Public Colleges	Private Colleges	Per cent in Public Colleges	Per cent in Private Colleges
1928	3,567	9,395	27.0	73.0
1932	10,873	11,003	49.7	50.3

The recommendations of the Government survey are still pertinent, although made a decade ago. To meet the future, the Negro land-grant colleges should be converted into real land-grant colleges, offering work of college standards in all phases of industrial higher education. Business courses are needed but of a more advanced nature than stenography, typewriting, and bookkeeping, to prepare for business administration, accounting, executive positions. There should be diversification on the basis of scientific knowledge of the needs of both the Negro and white population in each state, while the students should be trained to be self-supporting, to be leaders devoted to the complete rehabilitation of the economic, social, and spiritual activities of their people. Curricula should be examined and refocused with stress on technical objectives, since the main emphasis in the privately endowed schools is on cultural and religious training; unnecessary duplication is one of the vital issues that must be considered by all those institutions devoted to Negro higher education.

Educational Views of DuBois in 1930

These suggestions for the Negro land-grant colleges are in line with those made by an eminent educator, already quoted in this chapter, one whose viewpoint is well worth consideration for its maturity and perspective, and whose conclusions are undoubtedly as valid today as they were a few brief years ago. In 1930, when DuBois delivered the commencement address at Howard University, he again surveyed the course of Negro education, and offered criticism of the current situation and a goal and policy for the future.[85] He felt that despite much progress the issues of the best kind of education for the race

85. DuBois, "Education and Work," op. cit.

had not been settled, and he declared that the Negro colleges and vocational institutions do not comprehend the age in which we live and do not have a program that will enable their students to meet the new industrial world on its own terms, or to take places in it for their own betterment or that of society as a whole. In fact, an increasing number have been turned away from manual labor and industry, and from the solving of our economic problems, away from business into the professions where too many are crowding into teaching, medicine, dentistry, and law to form at the threshold of these better paid jobs a white collar proletariat. Consequently, ideals have been lowered, and there is little real culture.

The colllege, this educator was aware, faces a challenge to adapt its curricula to the demands of a world as it is and will be. The college must give its students "a broad economic comprehension and a sure industrial foundation," and must not "stick to the old habit of wasting time on Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and eschatology." For the object of the race college as he sees it is "to place in American life a trained black man, who can do what the world wants done; who can help the world, know what it ought to want done and thus by doing the world's work well may invent better work for a better world."[86] Its accomplishment of the past has been to train a few professional men and a large number of cultured men, but it has stopped without preparing them to earn a living. It has contributed little toward developing the business or administrative ability of the race, or toward the knowledge of social organization which would enable it to take part in forward-looking industrial movements of the day.

Likewise the industrial school has produced small results. For its objective --the training of Negro youth so that, with conscious pride in the work of his hands, he might earn enough to raise his standards of living, and look forward confidently to the benefits of higher education for his children, and through them to the cultural advancement of his race--there has been a small showing of skilled farmers and of better farming methods. Some skilled artisans have been trained and placed. The domestic arts, household economy, and business enterprise have been encouraged. That these results are meager, compared to the needs, is shown by a decrease in the farm population and by the fact that Negro artisans are not gaining proportionately in industry. Negro business faces a crisis, which so far has not been met by the industrial nor the commercial school.[87]

The industrial school has failed, not because of its objective or inadequate efforts, but because it lacked the right methods to gain it. Technological changes have made almost obsolete the old trade courses, and the facilities of the vocational school are insufficient for the new training. The individual trader, the small manufacturer, the little job, partnership for business, have been replaced by corporations, mass production, chain stores--a super-economic pattern for which the Negro has not been trained, and into which he cannot enter.[88] "Schools cannot teach as an art that which is a philosophy, a government of men, an organization. They can impart a mass of knowledge about it, but this is the duty of the college of liberal arts and not the work shop of the trade school."[89] It is these factors which have been transforming Hampton, Tuskegee and the land-grant colleges into the pattern of the liberal arts institutions. There is a further criticism in that the industrial school did not take cognizance of the employer and capitalist, and did not make its students

86. DuBois, "Education and Work," op. cit., pp. 64-65.
87. Ibid., p. 65.
88. Ibid., pp. 65-67.
89. Ibid., p. 67. Even if there were the preparation, the place of the Negro in industry is uncertain. In many parts of America there has been a reaction against a Negro's entering the skilled trades, since that tends to make him the equal of a white man, and places him in competition with white union labor (see annual vols. of The Crisis, 1915-1934, July nos.). In 1935, at a conference of Negroes and whites, held to discuss the equipment of the Negro high school in Indianapolis, the city industrial supervisor of schools expressed his opinion that Negro high-school students should be taught to wash automobiles but not to repair them.

familiar with the current problems of labor, the rise of trade unions, and the relation of the worker to modern industry and to the state. In other words it has neglected to make clear the economic conditions upon which culture must be built. "The world must eat before it can think."[90]

And the solution of the problem which both the industrial and liberal arts colleges face, DuBois saw in vocational guidance of the most thorough kind. This guidance should have "for its object the training of men who can think clearly and function normally as physical beings,"[91] and who know the past and present history of human institutions. With this knowledge should be the training that will enable these students to take a definite and intelligent place in the production of goods and help in the securing of a democratic and equitable distribution of purchasing power.

The liberal arts college program must turn toward vocational training, and the industrial program must change "from mere hand techniques to engineering and industrial planning and the application of scientific and technical knowledge to problems of work and wage."[92]

To make possible this achievement, there must be selectivity of teachers who are more than mere technicians, and of students who show earnest purpose, vision, and ideals, so that there may be men and women of ability for the future, to help break down social caste and gain a real freedom for the race.

* * * * *

Trends and Their Significance in the Development of Negro Higher Education

Several main tendencies stand out in the development of Negro higher education, despite the frequent confusion of objectives and the lack of uniformity among the various institutions in this category. (1) The type of college has been either liberal arts or a combination of liberal and practical arts. The desires of the race for cultural education, the influence of Northern institutions on the early Negro colleges, and the tendency to make the arts and science degrees the teaching degrees have contributed in part to this emphasis. Even the industrial and the agricultural and mechanical colleges have adapted their programs to this form, since all schools have shown the same tendency to meet the demands placed upon them by immediate circumstances. (2) The classical curriculum has been slow to yield to modern languages, science, and social science subjects, and liberal arts subjects have been, and are being, favored in the college program. (3) The recurring problem in all these institutions which have reached collegiate grade has been the proper integration of the liberal and social, the theoretical and practical aspects of their work. (4) Although there has been some effort to formulate the college program in terms that would meet the occupational needs of students, economic, social, and technological changes have come so rapidly that the Negro college, as a whole, has lagged behind. (5) Consequently the pressing problem for the Negro college is to comprehend the art, philosophy, and science of the social order in which it functions, and to shape its program so that the social pattern may be improved

90. DuBois, "Education and Work," op. cit., p. 68.
91. Ibid., p. 70.
92. Ibid.

Chapter II

SIGNIFICANCE OF STATISTICAL DATA ON NEGRO COLLEGIATE EDUCATION

Among the many and varied factors entering into the formulation of a program of instruction for Negroes, some have been selected for statistical analysis in this chapter. A few comments may make clear their significance.

The number and kind of degrees granted between 1870 and 1934 are indicative of the types of, and trends in training received by the college Negro graduate, and indirectly reveal not only the proportion graduated from the higher type of vocational training, but also the type of training most stressed in the past.

The occupational information gathered from adequate sample of Negro college graduates shows into what occupations graduates have gone, which occupations have been the most stable, the relation between occupation and training, trends of occupational shift, occupational geographical distribution, occupational distribution by sex, the time elapsing between graduation and first employment, and the relative effectiveness of literary and professional, or normal and vocational colleges in placing these graduates.

The judgment of graduates as to the college subject most useful in their occupations and the field of concentration of graduates and their occupation indicate the relative importance of college subjects, and hence serve as a basis for the reorganization of the college curriculum.

The mental ability of Negro college students, the mental ability of the general Negro population as compared to the ability of the general white population; and student mortality, suggest the type of training best suited to the Negro college student and gives one basis for the reorganization of the Negro college program of instruction.

Number and Kind of Degrees Granted Between 1870 and 1934

Degrees granted to Negroes from all colleges, Negro and white, in the sixty-four-year period from 1870 to 1934, totaled 36,569. A study of Table 14 will show that the number increased from 370 in the first ten-year period to 12,665 in the decade ending in 1929.

Table 14

TOTAL NUMBER OF NEGRO COLLEGE GRADUATES BY DECADES ACCORDING TO DEGREES CONFERRED[1]

Year	Academic Degrees				Professional Degrees						
	A.B.	M.A.	Ph.D.	Total	M.D.	D.D.S.	Ph.G.	Theo.	Law	Total	Grand Total
1870-79	186	34	3	223	66			27	54	147	370
1880-89	527	20		547	269	60	44	117	105	595	1,142
1890-99	1,226		4	1,230	618	84	136	380	264	1,482	2,712
1900-09	1,917		4	1,921	1,077	184	283	667	238	2,449	4,370
1910-19	3,031	53	11	3,095	1,096	571	344	657	253	2,921	6,016
1920-29	8,892	425	23	9,340	984	994	552	323	472	3,325	12,665
1930-34	7,687	570	32	8,289	477	147	113	148	120	1,005	9,294
TOTAL	23,466	1,102	77	24,645	4,587	2,040	1,472	2,319	1,506	11,924	36,569

1. Figures from 1870 to 1914 compiled from Annual Reports of the Commissioners of Education; figures from 1915 to 1934 compiled from The Crisis for those years.

The period of greatest increase was the decade beginning with 1920, in which there were slightly more than three times as many academic degrees granted as in the preceding decade. This increase was no doubt a result of the improved economic condition of the Negro. Slightly more than two-thirds of all degrees granted were academic.

The figures for the last period, however, cover only five years, but if we assume that the rate of increase for professional degrees is the same in the five years from 1935 to 1939 as from 1930 to 1934, there will be a 3 per cent decrease in the number of doctors graduating in the present decade as compared with the preceding decade. Dentists graduating will decrease by 70 per cent; Ph. G.'s 60 per cent; graduates of theological schools 9 per cent; and lawyers 50 per cent.

The prolonged depression will account, in part, for the decrease in professional degrees, but there are undoubtedly other factors. The disproportionate number of Negro doctors located in northern and border states, and the fact that Negroes in these states are less able now than formerly to pay for medical services will account for the decrease in M.D.'s. Many Negroes claim that the Negro dentist is inefficient. The falling off in the graduation rate of pharmacists can be traced, perhaps to the large number of persons following this profession and to the failure of Negro pharmacies. The fact that the Negro is overchurched, together with a widespread feeling among the younger generation (and even among the older ones) that church does not pay, may account for the decrease in the rate of graduation of Negro clergymen. The decrease in the rate of graduation for Negro lawyers is apparently owing to the distrust which Negro clients have for race lawyers. Moreover, the Negro faces certain difficulties at the bar, such as prejudice on the part of judges, and their feeling that the Negro lawyer is not really capable.[2]

Occupational Information of Samples of Negro College Graduates

The occupational trends indicated by these degrees will be apparent from a comparison of available data covering various periods from 1870 to 1934.

Occupations from 1870 to 1898

Before 1870, as Tables 15 and 16 show, the majority of Negro college graduates were teachers and ministers.

Table 15

OCCUPATIONS OF NEGRO COLLEGE GRADUATES FROM 1870 TO 1898[3]

Occupation	Before 1870	1870-79	1880-84	1885-89	1890-94	1895-98	Total
Teachers	10	65	74	159	179	214	701
Clergymen	8	38	26	56	56	31	215
Lawyers	2	5	11	14	23	7	62
Merchants	1	1	14	9	13	5	43
Physicians	1	8	13	16	31	7	76
U.S. Civil Service		12	8	15	13	2	50
Farmers		2	5	7	6	6	26
TOTALS	22	131	151	276	321	272	1,173

2. Chicago Commission on Race Relations, The Negro in Chicago (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1922).

3. The College-bred Negro, edited by W. E. B. DuBois, Atlanta University Publications No. 5 (Atlanta: Atlanta University Press, 1900), p. 66.

Table 16

OCCUPATIONS OF THE GRADUATES OF ATLANTA UNIVERSITY[4]

Total	94	Physicians	4
Male	83	Lawyers	2
Female	11	Dentists	1
Living	82	U.S. Civil Serv.	10
Dead	12	Business	6
		Students	3
Teachers	43	Wives	1
Ministers	11	Others	1

In other words, they followed the same occupations as the graduates of white colleges, since the white college, which was largely engaged in training for these two professions, was the prototype of the Negro college.

In the three-decade period before the turn of the century, the number who entered the teaching profession steadily increased. There was also an increase in the clergy, and in the number of lawyers, merchants, doctors, farmers, and United States Civil Service employees. Of 1,173 graduates studied, 59.7 per cent were teachers; 18 per cent clergymen; 6.4 per cent physicians; 4.2 per cent government employees; 3.6 per cent merchants; 2.2 per cent farmers; and 5.3 per cent lawyers. One reason for this tendency to enter the professions may be found in the relative stability of these occupations.

Professional Turnover before 1900

The First Atlanta University Conference on Negro Higher Education made a study of the number of graduates who up to that time had changed their work--187, or 28 per cent, while 515, or nearly 72 per cent, had not changed. From Table 17 it is possible not only to estimate the degree of professional turnover, but also the professions affected.

Looking over columns four and five of this table, we see that physicians and dentists had the lowest percentages of turnover and therefore the highest occupational stability--98 and 100 per cent respectively. Other highly stable professions were the ministry, law, teaching, and student, in the order named. Some occupations had very high turnover--higher than that of common labor, which for

Table 17

OCCUPATIONAL TURNOVER AMONG NEGRO GRADUATES BEFORE 1900[5]

Occupation	Changed Work	Did Not Change Work	Total	Per Cent Who Did Not Change Work	Per Cent of Turnover
Teachers	87	315	402	78.3	21.7
Clergymen	23	106	129	82.1	17.9
Students	5	15	20	75.	25.
Farmers	7	7	14	50.	50.
Clerks & Secretaries	12	3	15	20.	80.
In Business	14	7	21	33.3	66.7
U.S. Civil Service	17	3	20	15.	85.
Physicians	1	24	25	98.	2.
Lawyers	7	26	33	78.7	21.3
U.S. Army	1		1		
Dentists		2	2	100.	
Artisans	3	3	6	50.	50.
Matrons	1		1		
Menial Workers	6	1	7	14.2	85.8
Editors	3	3	6	50.	50.

4. Ibid., p. 72
5. Ibid., p. 69.

Negroes during the World War was 50 to 60 per cent.[6]

Occupational Trends of College Graduates since 1900

Since 1900 there has been a marked tendency for Negro college graduates to follow the same work as their predecessors. Table 18, showing the occupations they engaged in from 1868 to 1933, is made up of the professions which Negroes have entered in appreciable numbers. Some have entered other occupations, of course, but each of these occupations has claimed much less than one per cent of the total studied. This trend in the occupational distribution of these graduates is confirmed by Tables 16 and 18.

According to Table 19, the occupations which have claimed more than one per cent of the total sample of 5,216 college graduates studied in this particular survey (1935) are as follows: mail clerk 1.2 per cent; music teachers and musicians 1.3 per cent; clergymen 3.1 per cent; lawyers 3.6 per cent; social workers 1.8 per cent; teachers of all kinds 41.7 per cent; doctors 12.4 per cent; dentists 7.5 per cent; insurance 1.4 per cent; druggists 2.1 per cent; and housewives 4.6 per cent. Another survey--this one of 7,160 graduates--based upon the alumni records of leading Negro colleges, shows the following distribution as indicated in Table 20.

Other studies confirm these trends. An early study of 1,209 college graduates,

Table 18

OCCUPATIONS OF GRADUATES OF NEGRO COLLEGES SINCE 1868, BY FIVE-YEAR PERIODS

Occupation	1868-1872	1873-1877	1878-1882	1883-1887	1888-1892	1893-1897	1898-1902	1903-1907	1908-1912	1913-1917	1918-1922	1923-1927	1928-1932	1933	Total
Clergymen	3	12	12	14	38	42	41	75	66	53	47	64	44	12	523
Lawyers		5	2	8	9	6	14	12	15	7	11	28	5		122
Teachers															
Unspecified	1	7	6	15	11	26	28	42	70	95	143	205	597	138	1,384
High School					2	1	6	6	10	13	13	56	63	13	183
College		1	2	4	2	7	1	9	16	24	26	42	63	11	208
Principals & Supervisors			2	7	8	13	27	21		28	18	31	66	9	230
Physicians	2	4	8	31	45	39	56	61	65	41	87	23	20	39	521
TOTAL	6	29	32	79	115	134	173	226	242	261	345	449	858	222	3,171

Another tendency noted in Table 18 is the beginning about two decades after the Civil War, of the two new professions of school principal and secondary teacher. No doubt there were some before this, but not in appreciable numbers.[7]

gives the following percentage ranks: teacher 21.6; doctor 20.3; dentist 18.8; lawyer 16.0; minister 8.2; interne 3.9; pharmacist 3.3; and druggist 1.8.[8]

A 1912 study of 1,000 college graduates shows the following per cent

6. B. K. Armstrong, "Negro Labor Turnover during the War" (Unpublished reports of the Bureau of Inspection and Investigation, Dept. of Labor, Washington, 1919).
7. Unpublished records of studies made by Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn., 1934.
8. W. E. B. DuBois, Souls of Black Folk (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1903).

Table 19

DISTRIBUTION BY NUMBER AND PER CENT OF THE GRADUATES IN THE COLLEGE GRADUATE STUDY IN CERTAIN SPECIFIC OCCUPATIONS[9]

Occupations	Graduates in College Graduate Study	
	Number	Per Cent
Agriculture	26	0.5
Mail Clerks and Carriers	63	1.2
Authors, Editors, etc.	30	0.6
Music Teachers, Musicians	70	1.3
Clergymen	161	3.1
Lawyers	186	3.6
Librarians	40	0.8
Natural Scientists	12	0.2
Technical Engineers	8	0.2
Social Work and Religious Executives	49	0.9
Social Workers	92	1.8
Teachers, Unspecified	781	15.0
Teachers, Elementary	191	3.7
Teachers, High School	443	8.5
Teachers, Vocational	175	3.4
Teachers, College	237	4.5
School Principals & Supervisors	241	4.6
College Officials	45	0.9
College Presidents	22	0.4
Physicians	646	12.4
Dentists	392	7.5
Business Officials	28	0.5
Insurance Officials and Agents	74	1.4
Real Estate Officials and Agents	13	0.2
Undertakers	23	0.4
Druggists, Pharmacists	111	2.1
Retail Dealers	22	0.4
Accountants, Bookkeepers, etc.	34	0.7
Secretaries	29	0.6
Stenographers	13	0.2
Office Clerks	42	0.8
Housewives	240	4.6
Others	676	13.0
Total	5,216	100.0

* * * * *

Table 20

PER CENT DISTRIBUTION OF 7,160 NEGRO COLLEGE GRADUATES BY OCCUPATIONS[10]

Occupations	Per Cent
Postal Employees	1.
Clergymen	7.3
Lawyers	1.7
Teachers (general)	18.7
High School Teachers	2.5
College Teachers	2.9
School Principals	3.5
Physicians	6.4
Bankers	1.7
Druggists	1.3
Café Keepers	2.3
Messengers	4.0
Students and Wives	4.0
Dead	6.0

distribution: teachers 54 per cent; preachers 20 per cent; physicians 7 per cent; lawyers 4 per cent; business and others 15 per cent.[11]

It is clear from these surveys that the Negro college graduate enters very largely into a few selected professions, and that today the proportion who are entering each is in about the same ratio as a generation ago. Teaching no doubt attracts more Negro college graduates than any other profession because it gives the most assured economic return and in many instances the protective stability of the public school system. The proportion of ministers, however, has decreased since 1900, as a comparative study of the tables shows--in fact, as was shown earlier in this study, a conservative estimate of the decrease would be 9 per cent. This shift may be because of the fact that the Negro is losing faith in the church as a means of solving his worldly misery or his economic plight. Dentistry, too, as we have seen, is showing a large decrease. There are three reasons for this--economic conditions, the unwillingness of the Negro to go back South where there is more race opportunity, and the fact that the North is overstocked with Negro dentists.[12] Law

9. Chas. S. Johnson, "The Negro College Graduate," Journal of Negro Education, 1935, IV, 8.
10. Unpublished Alumni Records of Howard University and Hampton Institute.
11. The Crisis, July, 1912.
12. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Negroes in the United States, 1920 to 1932 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935).

shows a decrease of 50 per cent in the rate of increase, doubtless for the same reasons, plus that of an impasse of prejudice at the Southern bar. Druggists have decreased because of the economic debauch of the Negro drugstore as well as an evident oversupply of pharmacists.

Distribution of Negro College Graduates

Some recent facts of the distribution of these Negro college graduates, their numerical relation to the Negro population in various sections, and the average professional burden each individual carries in the main occupations which they have entered, come from two sources. According to a survey which covered nearly 19,000 Negro college graduates (and from which Table 19 was derived), in 1930 twelve Southern states with a total Negro population of 8,500,000 had 10,000 graduates, or about 53 per cent of the total covered; the border states had 4,000, or 21 per cent; the Northern states 4,300, or nearly 23 per cent; and the Western states 495, or over 2.5 per cent of the graduates studied. Per 10,000 of Negro population, the South had 12 Negro college graduates, the border states 36, the Northern states 22, and the Western states 23. Commenting on this distribution, and upon the occupational implications, a well-known Negro sociologist says:

> It is perhaps significant that 12 Southern states with 72 per cent of the Negro population have only 53 per cent of the college graduates; and the border states, with only 9 per cent of the Negro population, have 21.6 per cent of these graduates. It suggests this border area as more hospitable to these graduates vocationally. With the field of teaching providing occupations for so large a number this can be understood. There is no formal racial segregation of the public school in the Northern states (although in effect segregation frequently occurs) and no particular demand for Negro teachers. On the other hand, the low level of public school salaries for Negroes in most of the Southern states, and a social climate not wholly inviting to the young Negro graduates, have in a large measure been responsible for a drift to other sections. The border states, while insisting upon separate schools which require Negro teachers, yet offer a more nearly equal salary basis and a greater measure of social tolerance for this element of the Negro population.
>
> What is true of teaching is in a considerable part true of medicine and law. It is in the border states... that a Negro clientele for Negro professionals has been most promptly and readily built up.
>
> Excluding the numerically important teachers and preachers, the maldistribution of Negro college

Table 21

AVERAGE NUMBER OF NEGROES TO EACH NEGRO REPORTED IN THE PRINCIPAL PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS, BY DIVISIONS AND STATES: 1930[13]

Section Division	Clergyman	College president and professor	Dentist	Lawyer, judge and justice	Musician and Teacher of Music	Physician and Surgeon	Teacher (school)	Trained nurse
United States	475	5,541	6,707	9,536	1,124	3,125	218	2,076
North	423	12,747	2,605	3,141	392	1,582	403	1,231
South	495	4,796	11,731	21,472	2,446	4,286	194	2,567
West	289	24,069	2,407	2,735	196	1,228	665	971

13. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Negroes in the United States, 1920 to 1932, extract from Table 11.

> graduates in other vocations is even more striking. Thirty-two per cent of all the Negro physicians are located in metropolitan centers, chiefly in the North in which only 13 per cent of the Negro population live. Fifty-eight per cent of the Negro lawyers are in the North, where only 22 per cent of the Negro population reside and most of these lawyers are in six states. Of the trained social workers, 60.9 per cent are working in the North. The librarians alone seem to be normally distributed, with 83 per cent of their number in Southern states.[14]

The disproportionate number of Negro college graduates in the professional fields--clergymen, college teachers, dentists, lawyers, musicians, physicians and surgeons, teachers, and trained nurses--who have located in the North and West rather than in the South is clearly indicated in Table 21.

The publication from which the data was taken, indicates that at the time of the 1930 Census, 104,755 Negroes were engaged in eight principal professions. Of the 3,805 Negro physicians and surgeons nearly 40 per cent were located in seven of the Northern states and the District of Columbia, the combined Negro population of which is less than 19 per cent of the total Negro population of the United States. Illinois had more Negro physicians than Alabama, Arkansas, and South Carolina combined; while New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, with a Negro population of 1,052,899, reported only 2 less trained nurses than the six states: Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Oklahoma, with a combined Negro population of 3,075,507.

Among the states having 50,000 or more Negro population, the number of Negroes to each Negro clergyman varied from 251 in Kansas to 717 in Mississippi; the number for each dentist ranged from 1,247 in Massachusetts to 34,819 in Mississippi; the number per lawyer, judge, and justice, from 1,348 in the District of Columbia to 236,209 in Alabama; the average number of Negro inhabitants per Negro physician or surgeon was 691 in the District of Columbia as compared with 11,846 in South Carolina and 14,221 in Mississippi; while for each Negro trained nurse the average varied from 536 in New York to 8,078 in Mississippi.

As a basis of comparison for the relative professional burden carried by each individual, we should note that for the white population in the United States as a whole there were 716 persons to each clergyman; 1,273 to each dentist; 553 to each lawyer, justice, or judge; 306 to each trained nurse; 598 to each physician or surgeon.[15]

Occupations by Sex

As shown in Table 22, in some industrial divisions, there are pronounced sex differences in occupational distribution of the Negro college graduates. Even if we make due allowances for the unequal division in the male sample of 3,518 students as against 1,994 in the female sample, this tendency is clear. In agriculture the ratio is 7 males to one female. In transportation and commerce it is 20 to one; in public service 2.66 to one; but in professional services the numbers of each sex nearly balance--73 per cent of the men to 70.8 per cent of the women. In domestic service and also in manufacturing and merchandising, the ratio is 2 males to 1 female, but in trade it is 6 to 1. In clerical service there are 25 women to 21 men, and there are 65 unemployed women to 31 unemployed men. From the point of view of this study, however, the striking thing in Table 22 is the fact that more than 70 per cent of both men and women are in the professional group.

Occupational Distribution of Graduates of Private and State Colleges

On the whole Table 23 offers additional evidence for the statement that Negroes enter professional service whether they are graduated from private or public schools.

Nor is this occupational distribution entirely sectional. Although comparative analysis of Table 24 shows that of the Negro graduates who have entered agriculture, there are nearly twice as many from the Northern group as there are from

14. Johnson, op. cit., p. 11.
15. Op. cit.

Table 22

OCCUPATIONS OF 5,512 NEGRO COLLEGE AND PROFESSIONAL GRADUATES[16]

General Occupational Division	Male		Female		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Agriculture	24	.7	2	.1	26	.5
Transportation and Communication	72	2.0	2	.1	74	1.3
Public Service	27	.8	5	.3	32	.6
Professional Service	2,567	73.0	1,412	70.8	3,979	72.2
Domestic Service	68	1.9	18	.9	86	1.6
Mfg. and Mechanical	41	1.2	11	.6	52	.9
Trade	266	7.6	24	1.2	290	5.3
Clerical	75	2.1	50	2.5	125	2.3
Miscellaneous	160	4.5	299	15.0	459	8.3
Combination Occupation	81	2.3	12	.6	93	1.7
Unemployed	108	3.1	129	6.5	237	4.3
Ill	3	.1	3	.1	6	.1
Retired	11	.3	2	.1	13	.2
Occupation not Given	16	.4	2	.1	18	.2
Total	3,518	100.0	1,994	100.0	5,512	100.0

Table 23

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF GRADUATES OF PRIVATE AND STATE COLLEGES AND FROM THE SPECIAL SAMPLE COMPARED[17]

	4,562 Graduates of Negro Private Schools	7,063 Graduates of Negro Private & State Colleges	5,512 Negro College Graduates from Questionnaires
Agriculture	.3	1.3	.5
Trans. & Com.	1.6	2.0	1.4
Prof. Service	76.4	74.2	76.3
Domestic Service	.9	1.2	1.6
Mfg. and Mechanical	.8	1.2	1.0
Trade	7.2	5.3	5.6
Clerical	1.2	1.5	2.4
Miscellaneous	8.3	10.5	8.8
Comb. Occupation	.9	.8	1.8
Public Service	.6	.4	.3

the Southern private colleges; on the other hand, there is a slightly larger number of Southerners in professional service, the per cents being 77.8 for the graduates of Southern private colleges and 74.9 for those of Northern schools.

The per cents of distribution are, however, about the same for other occupations, and it seems that the same forces that put the Negro into certain occupations in the North are equally operative in the South. These forces are partly economic

16. Johnson, "The Negro College Graduate," op. cit., p. 6. (Errors in addition are in the original table, but the deductions are correct.)
17. Ibid.

Table 24

COMPARATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF OCCUPATIONS OF GRADUATES OF NORTHERN SCHOOLS AND OF SOUTHERN PRIVATE COLLEGES[18]

Occupations	Graduates of Northern Schools		Graduates of Southern Private Colleges	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Agriculture	20	1.7	17	.4
Manufacturing	10	.8	28	.6
Trans. & Communication	8	.7	75	1.6
Public Service	13	1.1	32	.7
Professional Service	876	74.9	3,612	77.8
Trade	69	5.9	337	7.3
Domestic Service	8	.7	42	.9
Clerical	21	1.8	67	1.4
Miscellaneous	134	11.5	387	8.3
Combination Occupation	10	.8	45	.9
Total	1,169		4,642	

and partly prejudicial and, insofar as the Negro tries to escape the complexes resulting from his former slave status, psychological as well.

Comparison of the Degrees Held and the Occupations of Howard University Graduates

The relation between degrees received in college and occupations pursued later is partially evident from Table 25, in which a given occupation and its corresponding professional degree are indicated. Since less than half of the 1,219 alumni reported their occupations, however, the total does not give the connection between degree and occupation in every case.[20] As a rule, there is a close correlation between a degree and its related profession. Ministers have studied theology; lawyers, law; teachers have received their A.B. or B.S. degree, (marking these as teaching degrees); doctors, the B.S. and medical degree; druggists, the Ph.G. or corresponding pharmaceutical degree, and dentists the

Table 25

COMPARISON OF OCCUPATIONS AND DEGREES HELD BY HOWARD UNIVERSITY GRADUATES[19]

Occupations	LL.B.	B.S.	A.B.	B.D.	M.A.	LL.M.	M.D.	Ph.G.	Mus.B.	DD.S.	Cert.	Number having degrees & reporting occ.	Total
Ministers	2	1	3	45	2							46	99
Lawyers	83		16	1	1	2					3	88	194
Teachers	11	40	60	4	2		4		15	1		125	262
Doctors	1	36	1				102	1				104	255
Internes		11					18					18	47
Drug. & Pharm.		1						31				30	62
Dentists		2						2		112		112	228
Engineers		3										3	6
Soc. Workers	1	1	1					1				4	8
Govt. Empl.	1		1	1		1	1					5	10
Business	3	3	3	1				3	1			11	25
Other Prof.	1	3	2	1	1			1	3			11	23
Total	103	101	87	53	6	3	125	39	19	113	3	557	1,219

18. Johnson, "The Negro College Graduate," op. cit., p. 9. (Errors in addition are in the original table, but the deductions are correct.)

19. Compiled by the writer from the original records at Howard University, 1934.

20. From records in the Registrar's office of Howard University, 1934. This close correlation has been verified by interviews with the Deans of the Liberal Arts college and the Graduate School of Howard University.

D.D.S. Those engaged in business and social work alone have received a variety of degrees.

Time between Graduation and First Employment

Some 10,000 graduates from professional, liberal arts, normal and vocational colleges were asked to state the time between graduation and first employment. The replies were tabulated as to the type of school (i.e., liberal arts and professional or normal or vocational), and the time elapsing before a job was secured.

Of those who had not been employed since their graduation, 3.4 per cent were graduates of the academic or professional colleges, and 2.5 per cent were graduates of either the normal or vocational schools. The unemployed males from the academic or professional colleges totaled 2.9 per cent as compared to 3.3 per cent from the normal or vocational schools. Of the females from the academic or professional colleges 4.41 per cent had been unemployed, as compared to 2.3 per cent from the normal or vocational schools. Of the graduates of academic or professional colleges 45.5 per cent were employed within a year as compared to 51.7 per cent from normal or vocational schools. Of academic and professional male graduates 40.5 per cent were employed within one year as compared to 38.3 per cent of normal and vocational male graduates. Of academic and professional female graduates 56.2 per cent were employed within one year, as compared to 57.6 per cent of normal or vocational female graduates.

By assigning arbitrary weights to the time between graduation and employment, and multiplying these weights by the per cents of graduates falling within the several time units between graduation and employment, then adding the products and dividing by the sum of the weights, the following indices are secured: academic and professional graduates 7.24, normal and vocational graduates 7.29--an indication that the two types of training are equal in terms of the time between graduation and first employment. The academic and professional male graduates had an index of 7.94 as compared to 13.33 for the normal and vocational graduates--a difference of 5.39 points against the male graduates of normal and vocational schools. Women graduates of the academic and professional colleges had an index of 6.05, while women graduates of normal and vocational schools had one of 6.62.

The per cent of graduates of academic and professional colleges who were unemployed during the time between graduation and employment in the field of choice, was 9.9; while the per cent for normal and vocational schools was 6.81. The per cent of male graduates of academic and professional colleges who were unemployed during this interval was 9.2, and for males in normal and vocational colleges, 10.7. For women graduates of the academic and professional colleges it was 11 per cent, and for the women of normal and vocational colleges it was 5.39.

Within a year after graduation 30.3 per cent of the graduates of academic and professional colleges were employed in the field of their choice, as compared to 34.9 per cent of those from normal and vocational colleges. For male graduates the per cents were 27.6 and 20.6, and for females 35.2 and 40.

By using the same procedure and weighting the time between graduation and employment according to the following scale: (1) no work, a weight of 12; (2) not given, a weight of 11; (3) less than 3 months, 1; 3 months to a year, 2; 1 to 2 years, 3; 2 to 3 years, 4; 3 to 4 years, 5; 4 to 5 years, 6; 5 to 6 years, 7; 6 to 7 years, 8; and over 7 years, 9, the following indices of placement are secured between the time of employment in the occupation of first choice, and graduation: total graduates of academic and professional colleges 8.64 per cent; total graduates of normal and vocational colleges 8.26. These give a slight advantage of .38 for the normal and vocational graduates. For men graduates the indices are 8.72 and 10.74, an advantage of 2.02 points for professional students, and for the women the indices are 8.50 and 7.82, an advantage of .68 in favor of normal and vocational graduates.

Insofar as the basis of comparison is reliable, it may be concluded that in finding employment, academic and professional graduates are almost on a par with graduates of normal or vocational colleges.[21]

21. Unpublished records of Howard and Fisk Universities.

Judgment of Negro College Graduates as to the Most Useful Subject in Connection with Their Present Occupations

To determine the most useful study, 4,862 college graduates were asked to state what subject, in their opinion, was most useful to them in connection with work in which they were engaged. From their replies the four subjects considered most useful by those following selected occupations were listed and ranked according to the highest number of judgments for each, giving Table 26.

Table 26

JUDGMENTS OF 4,862 GRADUATES AS TO COLLEGE SUBJECTS MOST USEFUL IN THEIR OCCUPATIONS

Occupations	Subjects			
	1	2	3	4
Physicians	Nat. Sci.	English	Soc. Sci.	For. Lang.
Teachers, Unspecified	English	Education	Soc. Sci.	Math.
Teachers, High School	English	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Nat. Sci.
Trade	Nat. Sci.	Math.	Bus., Econ.	English
School Prin., Supt.	English	Soc. Sci.	Education	Math.
Housewives	English	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Nat. Sci.
College Teachers	English	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
Elementary Teachers	English	Education	Soc. Sci.	Mus., Art
Lawyers	Soc. Sci.	English	Bus., Econ.	Math.
Clergymen, Bishops	English	Soc. Sci.	Rel., Phil.	For. Lang.
Trade Teachers	Nat. Sci.	English	Math.	Education
Druggist, Pharm.	Nat. Sci.	Math.	English	
Clerical Workers	Bus., Econ.	English	Math.	Soc. Sci.
Unemployed	Englisn	Soc. Sci.	Nat. Sci.	Education
Other Work	English	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.

The obvious general tendency, according to this table, is for graduates to regard the subject which they use most in their preparation for, and in the subsequent work in their occupation, as the one most beneficial to them.

When the judgments for each subject, from all of those engaged in the selected occupations, are totaled and then converted into percentages, and when the average, standard deviation, and skewness are computed and scale values assigned to the subjects by means of Carver's method,[22] the following per cent scale results: natural science 94; English 94; social science 87; mathematics 54; education 42; business and economics 24; foreign languages 24; music and art 14; religion and philosophy 14. The high rank assigned to natural science results from the large number of judgments from physicians.[23]

Fields of Concentration of 5,513 Negro College Graduates Engaged in Certain Selected Occupations

More than 5,000 college graduates were asked their college fields of concentration. When these replies were summarized and tabulated, and the four highest ranking fields of concentration for those engaged in each occupation placed with the results already given from the judgments of 4,862 graduates, the results indicated in Table 27 were obtained.

This comparative table shows that there is a correlation of .55 between the first four ranking majors of 5,513 Negro college graduates, and the first four ranking college subjects based on the judgments of 4,862 graduates. Since this correlation is not high, the conclusion may be drawn

22. H. C. Carver, "Synopsis of Elementary Mathematical Statistics," Annals of Mathematical Statistics, Vol. I (Ann Arbor: Edwards Brothers, Inc., 1930), pp. 29ff.

23. Unpublished records of Howard and Fisk Universities.

that the relation between the major and the most useful subject after leaving college is not great insofar as this basis of comparison is valid.

By assigning arbitrary numbers--1, 2, 3, and 4--to both the four ranking major subjects and to the four subjects found most useful by those in each of the selected occupations, and by giving arbitrary numbers to the college subjects as follows: natural science 1; social science 2; business and economics 3; religion and philosophy 4; music and art 5; foreign languages 6; education 7; mathematics 8; and English 9; and then multiplying each rank number by the number of subjects with that rank, and

Table 27

RANK OF FOUR HIGHEST SUBJECTS
According to (1) majors of 5,513 graduates by occupations and (2) judgments of 4,862 graduates as to college subject most useful in their occupation

Occupations	Subjects			
	1	2	3	4
Physicians	1) Nat. Sci.	Math.	Soc. Sci.	For. Lang.
	2) Nat. Sci.	Eng.	Soc. Sci.	For. Lang.
Teachers, Unspecified	1) Educ.	Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Nat. Sci.
	2) Eng.	Educ.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
Teachers, High School	1) Eng.	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
	2) Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Nat. Sci.
Trade	1) Nat. Sci.	Bus., Econ.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
	2) Nat. Sci.	Math.	Bus., Econ.	Eng.
School Prin., Supt.	1) Nat. Sci.	Educ.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
	2) Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Educ.	Math.
Housewives	1) Soc. Sci.	Eng.	Educ.	Nat. Sci.
	2) Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Nat. Sci.
College Teachers	1) Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Eng.	For. Lang.
	2) Eng.	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
Elementary Teachers	1) Educ.	Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
	2) Eng.	Educ.	Soc. Sci.	Mus., Art
Lawyers	1) Soc. Sci.	Math.	Bus., Econ.	Nat. Sci.
	2) Soc. Sci.	Eng.	Bus., Econ.	Math.
Clergymen, Bishops	1) Rel. & Phil.	Soc. Sci.	Eng.	For. Lang.
	2) Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Rel. & Phil.	For. Lang.
Trade Teachers	1) Nat. Sci.	Educ.	Eng.	Soc. Sci.
	2) Nat. Sci.	Eng.	Math.	Educ.
Clerical	1) Bus., Econ.	Eng.	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.
	2) Bus., Econ.	Eng.	Math.	Soc. Sci.
Drug. & Pharm.	1) Nat. Sci.	Eng.	Math.	
	2) Nat. Sci.	Math.	Eng.	
Unemployed	1) Soc. Sci.	Nat. Sci.	Eng.	Educ.
	2) Eng.	Soc. Sci.	Nat. Sci.	Educ.
Others	1) Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Eng.	Educ.
	2) Eng.	Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.
Combined Occupations	1) Math.	Eng.	Rel. & Phil.	Educ.
Social Workers	1) Nat. Sci.	Eng.	Educ.	Math.
Domestic & Per. Service	1) Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Eng.	Educ.
Transp. & Com.	1) Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Educ.
Insurance	1) Bus., Econ.	Soc. Sci.	Nat. Sci.	Math.
Music Directors	1) Mus. & Art	Educ.	Soc. Sci.	Eng.
Postal Service	1) Nat. Sci.	Soc. Sci.	Math.	Educ.
Mfg. & Mech. Ind.	1) Nat. Sci.	Math.	Eng.	Educ.

adding the four products, a sum is secured which makes it possible to determine for each field of endeavor the per cents of agreement between the four ranking major fields of concentration and the four ranking most useful subjects after graduation.

By dividing the sum for the majors by the sum for the most useful subjects, the following per cents of agreement were secured: clergymen and bishops 98; druggists and pharmacists 97; physicians 96; housewives 91; other occupations 88; unemployed 88; college teachers 87; trade workers 86; high-school teachers 85; school principals 80; elementary teachers 77; trade teachers 71; teachers unspecified 69; clerks 60; and lawyers 50. This gives a median per cent of agreement of 86 for major field and most useful subject when each occupation is considered individually. This result is in sharp contrast with the correlation of only .55 when the totals for all the occupations were used.

Table 27 also indicates that occupational experience brings a definite shift in the evaluation of certain subjects. In their judgments physicians replace mathematics by English as the second ranking subject; unspecified teachers replace education by English in first place; high-school teachers replace natural science in second place with social science; those engaged in trade have business and economics coming second as major subjects and third as most useful subjects. School principals and supervisors replace natural science (which ranks first as their major subject) by English, and education (their second major) by social science. Housewives replace social science with English. College teachers had natural science for their ranking major subject, but regard English as their most useful subject. Elementary teachers give English precedence over education in the first rank, and substitute art and music for mathematics in fourth place. For lawyers mathematics as second major is replaced by English as the most useful subject. Clergymen, who replace religion and philosophy in first rank with English, put religion and philosophy in third rank as most useful subjects. Trade teachers regard English, not their major, education, as their second most useful subject. Other interesting differences are also apparent from the table.

The same method employed in computing the most useful subject gives for the major field of concentration of the 5,513 graduates the following scale values: natural science 98; sociology 83; English 75; education 64; mathematics 50; foreign languages 34; business and economics 17; music and art 10; and religion and philosophy 5.

The most significant differences between subject rank in scale values for major subjects and for most useful subjects are, that while English ranks first, along with natural science, as most useful subject, it ranks third as major--falling below social science. As most useful subject education is fifth--falling below mathematics--whereas as major it is above mathematics, in fourth place. In most useful subjects business and economics and foreign languages have the same scale value, but, as major, foreign languages has a scale twice that of business and economics.

A similar study, which bears out these findings, was made of the results from 10,375 graduates and gives the subject scale values for the major and most useful subjects. They are: natural science 96; social science 85; English 84.5; education 53; mathematics 52; foreign languages 29; business and economics 20.5; music and art 12; and religion and philosophy 9.5.[24]

Vocational Choices of Negro High-School Seniors with the Actual Vocations of College Graduates

The vocational choices of 6,000 Negro high-school seniors compared with the actual occupational distribution of 12,000 Negro college professional and vocational graduates showed the following percentages:[25]

Occupation	High-School Seniors	College Graduates
Agriculture	1.2	2.7
Manufacturing	12.6	12.3
Transportation	1.9	2.7
Public Service	1.6	.58
Professional Service	69.2	61.6
Trade	3.5	5.7
Domestic Service	0.9	1.4
Clerical Service	7.9	2.0
Others	1.2	18.5

24. Unpublished records of Howard and Fisk Universities.
25. Johnson, "The Negro College Graduate," op. cit.

These percentages indicate the general tendency of children to follow the occupations of college graduates. They also show the overwhelming trend, even more than the actual distribution, toward the professional field. The Negro secondary student looks to the professions--since his elder is to be a professor, doctor, or lawyer, and since, in the past, these occupations have spelled what monetary success he has known about among Negroes.[26]

Median Salary Received by Negro College Graduates Engaged in Certain Professions

Seven hundred Negro college graduates were asked what salary they received. The medians for six occupations were as follows:

Doctors	$2,777
Lawyers	2,291
Dentists	2,096
Ministers	2,000
College Teachers	1,967
High-School "	1,000
All Occupations	1,417

The median salary of $1,417 for all occupations studied, as compared to the $1,000 salary received by the average Negro worker at the time of the World War, when he was receiving his best wage, indicates that a college education is worth at least $400 a year more than that of skilled or common Negro labor during its best days--that is, during the war.[27]

Mental Ability of Negro College Students

While it is not within the province of this thesis to enter into a detailed analysis of the intelligence of Negro college students, some data will aid in throwing light on their mental equipment. The Army alpha intelligence scale furnishes us with one source of data.

Comparative scores of the white draft for the whole country and the Negro draft, North and South, will reveal the mental abilities of the general white and Negro populations insofar as such comparisons are valid and reliable. Table 28 gives averages and standard deviations on the alpha test for these three male populations as represented by the draft.

Table 28

AVERAGE SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS MADE ON ARMY ALPHA BY THE WHITE DRAFT AND NEGRO, NORTH AND SOUTH DRAFT

	Number	Average	Standard Deviation
White Draft	40,570	67	37
Negro Draft North	2,748	48	30
Negro Draft South	5,681	29	26

The average score made by the Northern Negro draftee on the Army alpha is 71 per cent of the white draftee's average score on alpha, and the Southern Negro draftee's average is 43 per cent of the white draftee's average.

Using a five-letter scale of comparison based upon a standard deviation distance from the average gives the following point values for A, B, C, D, and F, as indicated in Table 29.

Table 29

RANGE OF POINT SCORES MADE BY THE DRAFTEES ON THE ALPHA INTELLIGENCE SCALE WHEN A FIVE-LETTER SCALE IS USED

	A	B	C	D	F
White Draft	122 and above	85 to 121	49 to 84	12 to 48	11 and below
Negro Draft North	103 and above	63 to 102	33 to 62	7 to 32	-6 and below
Negro Draft South	69 and above	43 to 68	16 to 42	-10 to 15	-9 and below

26. Johnson, "The Negro College Graduate," op. cit.

27. U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, August, 1919 (Washington: Government Printing Office); and Unpublished records of Howard and Fisk Universities.

In the case of the white draft there is a pronounced skew to the D range of the score, the frequency in the B range being 57 per cent of the D frequency. The colored draft North also shows a skew to the D range; the number of scores in the B range is 43 per cent of the D range scores. The Negro draft South has a similar skew of a positive character with the B frequency being 41 per cent of the D frequency. The coefficients of variability for the three groups are white 53, Negro North 62, and Negro South 90.

The mental ability of white college students compared with that of Negro college students North and South is indicated by the alpha scores as shown in Table 30.

Table 30

AVERAGE SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS MADE ON ARMY ALPHA BY WHITE AND NEGRO COLLEGE STUDENTS WHO WERE DRAFTEES

	Number	Average	Standard Deviation
White College Students	4,750	126	31
Negro College Students North	1,070	93	37
Negro College Students South	3,500	62	21

The average score made by the Northern Negro college student on the Army alpha is 73 per cent of the white college average, while that of the Southern Negro college student is 49 per cent. Using a five-letter scale gives the results in Table 31:

The curves of the Negro college students from both sections are normal, whereas the white college curve is slightly skewed toward the B range of scores.[28] The coefficient of variability is 24 for the white college student, 40 for the Negro college student North, and 34 for the Negro college student South.

By using the per cent distribution of total alpha scores made by colored and white recruits, it is possible--if the alpha scale is in any sense a measure of scholastic success--to state the chances all white and colored students will have of doing C work or better in college. By taking 111, the lower limit of the C scores on the five-letter scale, for the white college letter scale and adding the per cent distribution of scores for the white draft, we get 15.5 per cent of chances per one hundred of the general white population as represented by the white draft. For the Negro North college student the per cent is 4.2 per one hundred of the general population.[29]

The range of intelligence of Southern Negro college students as shown in Table 31 indicates that, insofar as intelligence, as measured by Army alpha, is a factor of success, the C student will succeed in occupations of a mechanical nature, such as that of farmer, machinist, carpenter, painter, plumber, brakeman, chauffeur, stationary engineer, baker, cook, butcher, bricklayer, tailor, handy man, caterer, policeman, riveter, and telephone operator.[30]

The American Council on Education intelligence test affords us another basis for the study of the Negro college student's ability. The averages and standard deviations for white students on the 1930 and

Table 31

RANGE OF POINT SCORES MADE BY WHITE AND NEGRO COLLEGE DRAFTEES ON THE ALPHA INTELLIGENCE SCALE WHEN A FIVE-LETTER SCALE IS USED

	A	B	C	D	F
White College	173 above	142-172	111-141	80-110	79 below
Negro College North	148 above	111-147	74-110	37- 63	36 below
Negro College South	93 above	72- 92	51- 71	30- 50	29 below

28. Psychological Examining in the United States Army, Memoirs of the National Academy of Science, Vol. XV (Washington: National Academy of Science, 1921), p. 764.

29. Ibid.

30. Ibid., p. 824.

the 1932 editions are indicated in Table 32:

Table 32

AVERAGE SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS MADE BY WHITE AND NEGRO COLLEGE STUDENTS IN THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION INTELLIGENCE TEST

	Number	Average	Standard Deviation
White College Students	49,639	168	56
Negro College Students	1,433	69	38

A five-letter grading scale gives the results shown in Table 33:

work or better in college if the American Council test scores were a perfect measure of scholastic attainment, which they were not.

Psychological Scores of Students Failing in Certain Subjects Compared with the Scores of Nonfailing Students

In a study by subjects of failing and nonfailing students, scores on the American Council on Education psychological examination reveal the results shown in Table 34.

The median score of all failing students was 59, and of nonfailing students 66. The median score for failing males was 65, and for nonfailing males 72. For failing females it was 56, and for nonfailing females 64. These figures suggest that, on the American Council on Education

Table 33

RANGE OF POINT SCORES MADE BY WHITE AND NEGRO COLLEGE STUDENTS IN THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION INTELLIGENCE TEST WHEN A FIVE-LETTER SCALE IS USED

	A	B	C	D	F
White College Students	252 above	196-251	140-195	83-139	82 below
Negro College Students	128 above	89-127	51- 88	13- 50	11 below

Taking 140 as the lower limit of the C group of intelligence, we find that 4.6 per cent of the Negro college students would do C

test, either there is little correlation between ability and the type of subject matter taught the students, or teachers' marks are not very reliable.[31]

Table 34

MEDIAN PSYCHOLOGICAL SCORES OF STUDENTS WHO FAILED IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS, COMPARED WITH THE SCORES OF NONFAILING STUDENTS*

	English	Language	Mathematics	Science	Social Science	Others	All Failing Students	Non-Failing Students
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Men	75.00	76.0	73.00	87.50	65.00	115.0	65.00	71.66
No. of cases	56.00	76.0	87.00	36.00	21.00	4.0	197.00	366.00
Women	42.85	61.0	69.28	51.00	46.25	55.0	56.05	64.04
No. of cases	48.00	57.0	93.00	38.00	28.00	6.0	207.00	663.00
Both	54.28	68.5	71.00	59.37	49.37	79.5	59.51	66.57
Total cases	104.00	133.0	180.00	74.00	49.00	10.0	404.00	1,029.00

*Too few cases to yield reliable median.

31. Ambrose Caliver, Background Study of Negro College Students, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 25.

Median Psychological Scores of Students According to the College Subject in Which They Plan to Major

Race college students who are planning to major in certain subjects select these majors with a significant degree of consistency, insofar as the correlation between the amount of intelligence, as measured on the American Council on Education test, and the number of students who select a given major, is a measure of correct selection of a field of concentration.

Table 35 (which shows the major selected, the median mental scores of students making this selection, the number of men and women students selecting the given major, the per cent of all students selecting this major, the rank of scores according to major, and the rank of percentages according to major) enables us to calculate the Spearman Rank.

Coefficient of correlation between the psychological score and the number of students selecting a given major, is .83, or 45 per cent better than a guess.[33] This low correlation between intelligence and the subject in which the Negro college student plans to major indicates that these students are selecting majors without regard to mental ability. This situation can only be righted when students are given proper guidance and the selection of majors brought within the range of their ability.

Elimination of White Draft and Negro Draft from Grade, Secondary School, and College

It has long been known that there was a high mortality of Negro students in the educational system. Data secured from

Table 35

NUMBER, PER CENT, AND MEDIAN PSYCHOLOGICAL SCORES OF STUDENTS WHO ANTICIPATE MAJORING IN VARIOUS COLLEGE SUBJECTS, AND RANGE OF SUBJECTS[32]

Subject	Median	Number of Cases		Percentage both men and women are of total	Rank of column 2	Rank of column 5
		Men	Women			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Agriculture	43.88	48	1	3	19	11
Ancient language	79.0	8	11	1	6	16
Art	55.0	4	8	1	16	19
Biology	70.50	75	32	7	12	5
Business admin.	70.71	40	19	4	11	9
Chemistry	83.0	95	24	8	5	4
Economics	38.65	5	18	2	20	14
Education	57.71	30	180	15	15	1
Engineering	71.66	21	---	1	10	15
English	75.0	25	113	10	7	2
History	65.62	36	51	6	13	7
Home economics	44.44	--	136	9	18	3
Mathematics	85.71	31	57	6	4	6
Modern language	102.5	10	36	3	2	12
Music	72.66	7	48	4	9	10
Political science	105.0	11	---	1	1	20
Psychology	65.0	3	11	1	14	17.5
Religion	45.0	12	2	1	14	17.5
Sociology	97.5	6	26	2	3	13
Miscellaneous	74.28	47	37	6	8	8

32. Ambrose Caliver, Background Study of Negro College Students, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 8 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), p. 27.
33. Ambrose Caliver, "Negro College Students and the Need of Personnel Work," Journal of Negro Education, 1933, II, 373.

draftees during the war showed the degree of elimination from school of whites and Negroes. Of the 98 per cent of the white draft who entered school, 49 per cent were in school at the end of the eighth grade; 9.5 per cent finished high school and 1 per cent college. Of the 86.5 per cent of the Negro draft who entered school, 17 per cent finished the elementary school; 3 per cent finished high school; and 0.4 per cent completed college.[34]

In this same study from other samples of the drafts, it was shown that the native white draft had the following per cent distribution of years of schooling: 8 years, 25.4 per cent; 12 years, 4.1 per cent; and 16 years, 1.1 per cent. The Negro draft North for the same number of years of schooling was 13.8 per cent; 2.4 per cent, and 0.7 per cent. The Negro draft South was 3.8 per cent, 0.6 per cent, and 0.2 per cent.[35]

Student Mortality

Figures from other more recent sources bear out this indication of Negro student mortality. With this high mortality in enrollment, it is impossible to render satisfactory educational service. A study made in 1928 showed that 689 students, or 80.5 per cent of the total enrollment of the colleges reporting, failed to remain in college. This represents 69 per cent of all men, or a total of 209, and 86.8 per cent of all women, or a total of 480. In the freshman year the loss was 38 per cent and 22 per cent in the sophomore year. Many women pursued only a two-year normal course and then left college.

In a study of the student mortality in the classes which entered the land-grant colleges of nine Southern states in 1924, the mortality for 856 students was as follows: 1924, 185 students or 20.4 per cent; 1925, 109 or 12.7 per cent; 1926, 38 or 4.4 per cent, and 1928, 7 or 0.8 per cent; while 167, or 19.5 per cent, received degrees.[36] Of those entering classes in 1924 303 or 35.5 per cent were males; and 553 or 64.6 per cent females. Of the total enrollment of 856, 81 or 9.4 per cent of the males, and 104 or 12.1 per cent of the females, left school the first year. In the second year 57 or 6.6 per cent of the males, and 52 or 6 per cent of the females, dropped out. In the third year there were 20 males and 18 females, 2.3 per cent and 2 per cent, who dropped out; and, in the fourth year, 6 or 0.7 per cent of males, and 1 or .11 per cent of females, left school.[37]

This high student mortality of the Negro college is due in part to poor economic conditions and in part to poor scholarship, which in turn is largely a result of inadequate preparation of students at the lower level. In the case of one college, 20 per cent of the students failed; in another, 8 per cent.[38] In 1935, 32 per cent of the students in one land-grant college made a D or F average in scholarship. In this college the average score of students on the Ohio University Mental Test was 45, against 70 for white college students in the same state.

Summary

1. The data on the number and type of degrees granted, and the occupational distributions of graduates present several clear-cut tendencies: In 64 years Negroes have received 36,569 degrees, two-thirds of which have been academic. During the last two decades the rate for Negro physicians graduated has remained practically stationary. Since 1930, however, there has been a decrease of 70 per cent for dentists; 60 per cent for pharmacists; 9 per cent for ministers; and 50 per cent for lawyers. Before 1900 Negro college graduates were engaged largely in teaching and the ministry, with a few in medicine, dentistry, and law. While the numbers of physicians and lawyers were small, they increased

34. Psychological Examining in the United States Army, op. cit., p. 763.
35. Ibid., p. 758.
36. U. S. Office of Education, "Negro Land-Grant Colleges," Survey of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, Vol. II (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930), p. 904.
37. Ibid.
38. Ibid., p. 905.

steadily. The professional turnover in all these occupations was low, but high for other occupations--a fact accounting in part for the entry of graduates into such professions. Since 1900 Negro college graduates have gone into teaching, medicine, law, dentistry, the ministry, pharmacy, and in smaller numbers into a variety of other occupations. The number entering the ministry has declined.

2. In 1930 the Southern states had 12 Negro college graduates per 10,000 Negro population; the border states had 36; the Northern states 22; and the West 23. There were 58 per cent of the Negro lawyers in the North, where 22 per cent of the population live; 22 per cent of all Negro physicians were located in cities, mainly Northern with 13 per cent of the population; 61 per cent of trained social workers were in the North; and to each trained nurse there were 1,200 Negroes in the North and 2,500 in the South. More than 70 per cent of both male and female graduates were in professional service. This distribution applies to the graduates of both public and private colleges in the North and in the South.

3. The data on the relation of collegiate training and occupation indicate the following: There is a high correlation between the degree and the professional occupation of graduates. The A.B. and B.S. graduates tend to enter teaching, but physicians also frequently take the B.S. degree. The time elapsing between graduation and first employment in the occupation of choice is about the same for professional and academic college graduates as for normal or vocational college graduates. The majors and the most useful subject for professions do not always agree. Physicians and druggists state that natural science is the most useful subject to them; clergymen and teacher, English; lawyers, social science; and clerks list business and economics. On the basis of utility, the judgments of 4,862 graduates result in the following scale values for the college subjects studied: natural science 94; English 94; social science 87; mathematics 54; education 42; business and economics 24; foreign languages 24; music and art 14; and religion and philosophy 14. The correlation between the field of concentration in college and the subject most useful in the occupation followed is .55.

4. High-school seniors, in choosing careers, tend to select those in which college graduates are found, and in about the same proportion. The value of a college education seems to be at least $400 a year above the best wage earned by skilled or common labor.

5. Data on intelligence and academic success give the following: On the alpha intelligence scale the Northern Negro college student's average score was 73 per cent of the white college student's average. That of the Southern Negro college student was 49 per cent of the white college student. On the basis of the data, out of each one hundred of the white population 15.5 persons will do satisfactory college work compared to 4.2 persons per hundred of the Negro population in the North. On the American Council on Education intelligence test the Negro college student's average was 41 per cent of the white college student's average. The median psychological score of failing Negro college students was 59, and of nonfailing students 66. There was a correlation of .83 between intelligence and the major selected.

6. Data from the draft and from recent studies indicate a high mortality in Negro college enrollment, due primarily to the low economic status of students and to poor scholarship. Only 0.4 per cent of the Negro draft finished college.

Implications and Suggestions for the Reorganization of the College Program of Instruction

1. Out of this variety of quantitative data on Negro higher education, apart from the general implication that professional graduates should settle in the Southern states where there is more race opportunity, several less general, and bearing more directly on the college field, emerge. It seems obvious that in addition to the usual professional activities into which Negro college graduates still tend to go, the possibilities of other avenues of work should be considered for new vocational opportunity. In view of the

prevalent conditions there seems to be a greater need for more scientific and thorough guidance of high-school seniors and lower classmen in colleges, to turn them away from the professions toward trades and vocations. Especially is this need evident for students who are potentially better suited to trades. Educational and vocational testing has reached a sufficiently high stage of reliability to render vital service in this respect. Greater selectivity of students would tend to reduce student mortality.

2. In view of the preponderance of academic and professional degrees granted during the entire history of the Negro college, the apparently limited market for Negro professional services, the evident limitations of mental ability of Negroes for the type of work they are now pursuing, together with a mental makeup of the majority that seems to point to intelligence of a vocational level, it is suggested the Negro college educational program for the majority be reorganized along vocational rather than academic or professional lines.

3. Since the time elapsing between graduation and first employment is about the same for professional and academic college graduates as for normal or vocational college graduates, it is suggested that the Negro college re-examine its whole academic, professional, and vocational program with a view of expediting the replacement of its graduates.

4. It is also suggested that the college investigate the possibility of increasing the correlation between the most useful subject and the chosen occupation, and the correlation between the field of concentration and the anticipated future occupation.

Chapter III

EMPLOYMENT TRENDS OF THE GRADUATES OF A TYPICAL VOCATIONAL COLLEGE

The college to be studied in this chapter, with reference to employment movements of its graduates, has served the Negro race as a vocational arts college since the War of the Rebellion. Its curriculum has changed as the Negro's social, economic, and political milieu has expanded or contracted, progressed or retrogressed, differentiated or integrated.

Dr. Woody and Dr. Trow of the School of Education of the University of Michigan have both stated that the curriculum of the Negro school reflects the environment in which it is situated. Such is the case with this college; moreover, as new exigencies and needs have arisen in the life of the Negro, the educational policy and program of the institution have been altered to meet the new conditions and requirements of the race.[1] From time to time surveys of the college have been made by outside experts so that a scientific inventory and appraisal could be taken of its educational endeavor, to the end that its objectives and procedures might keep pace with the evolving culture of the ethnic group which it has sought to serve. Many of its instructors travel over the country each year, studying the ever-changing world of the race, and return--with the signs of the times well in mind--to reshape and modify the educational experience of their students.

The authorities of the college have also made it a part of their policy to keep in touch with the alumni as the years pass to see what demands have been made on them since leaving college. This information has been used as a guide in the continuous revision of the curriculum.

As a result, vocational and employment records of this college are fairly complete, its educational policy, as is evident, has been progressive and constructive, and it has served students from every section of the United States, consequently it offers excellent data as to what the best type of Negro vocational college has done for its graduates. The employment trends encountered by these graduates in their occupational experience, together with their academic records, mirror the tendencies and patterns of their careers and reflect their life experience. It is the purpose of this chapter to present and interpret some phases of the training, academic records, and vocational movements of samples of these graduates. These data will reveal certain fundamental factors and functions of a college which has rationalized and liberalized the vocations, as well as the arts and sciences, in its attempt to develop, modify, enrich, and discipline Negro youth.

Occupational Groups Which the College Trade Graduates Have Entered Since 1889

The trade schools of the colleges grant diplomas and trade certificates in fourteen crafts. These trade graduates have engaged in fifteen or more occupations. Table 36 indicates, by six-year periods, the groups into which they have entered since 1889. The occupational categories used in this table are the same as those used by the author for the classification of certain occupations during the World War.[2]

In the six-year period from 1895 to 1900 there were twelve trade graduates who later entered the professions. The number increased to 53 in the period from

1. From Servitude to Service (Boston: American Unitarian Association, 1905).
2. B. K. Armstrong, "Negro Labor Turn-over during the War" (Unpublished records of the Bureau of Inspection and Investigation, Dept. of Labor, Washington, 1919).

Table 36

OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS WHICH COLLEGE TRADE GRADUATES HAVE ENTERED SINCE 1889

	Occupation										
Six-Year Period (Number)	Dead	Unknown	Professional	Skilled	Semiskilled	Business	Agriculture	Government Employee	At Home	Miscellaneous	Horizontal Total
1889) 1894)	1					1					2
1895) 1900)	10	2	12	8	2	1	1	2		6	44
1901) 1906)	30	28	23	49	9	8	1	10		15	173
1907) 1912)	27	42	43	54	9	10	3	7		14	209
1913) 1918)	16	61	49	62	10	7		9		10	234
1919) 1924)	1	26	53	31	3	4	1	4		6	129
1925) 1930)	4	43	46	69	8	7		1	1	25	204
1931) 1936)	1	16	8	21	4	2			6	13	71
Vertical Total	90	218	224	294	45	40	6	33	7	89	1,056

1919 to 1924. The last decade has witnessed a decrease in the number entering the professions.

Graduates engaged in skilled pursuits rose from eight in the six years from 1895 to 1900, to sixty-nine in the decade after the War, but since 1930 there has been a decline. Forty-five graduates have entered the semiskilled fields, but their fairly equal distribution throughout the period shows no significant trend. The forty who have entered business are also spread rather uniformly throughout the thirty years from 1900 to 1930.

In the opening years of the present century, there were just two graduates who entered agriculture, and since that time four have followed farming as a calling. As the century dawned, ten graduates entered government service, but since 1913 only fourteen trade graduates have gone into this field.

Number of Graduates from Each Trade School Who Have Entered Various Occupational Groups

The cross tabulation of the number of trade graduates receiving certificates in each of the various trades and crafts, with the same classification of occupational groups used in the first section of this chapter, is given in Table 37.

Of the forty-one who have graduated from the painting school, nine have remained in skilled work, and an equal number have entered the professions. The records from the bricklaying school show that fifty-seven have stayed in skilled work, and twenty-seven have entered the professions. Six graduates in shoemaking are following professional lines. Sixty-seven tailoring graduates have remained in some sort of vocation, while eighteen have entered the professions. Twenty-five machinist graduates have followed skilled or

semiskilled work, and twenty-one of the professions. The plumbing and steam-fitting school has graduated seventy-one since 1889; skilled work has retained twenty-two of them, and fourteen are following professional pursuits.

fessional work, and eight in business. The cabinetmaking school has graduated thirty-two students, nineteen of whom have gone into professional work, with only two following skilled or semiskilled lines. The ratios of graduates from each trade who

Table 37

NUMBER OF GRADUATES FROM EACH TRADE SCHOOL WHO HAVE ENTERED VARIOUS OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Trade Department	Occupations										
	Dead	Unknown	Professional	Skilled	Semiskilled	Business	Agriculture	Government Employee	At Home	Miscellaneous	Horizontal Total
Painting	2	10	9	9	1	2		2	1	5	41
Bricklaying	10	31	27	57	4	9		7	1	11	157
Shoemaking	3	3	6	2	2	1		2		5	24
Tailoring	18	30	18	67	5	5		6		5	154
Machinist	7	19	21	20	5	1	2	1	1	12	89
Plumbing and Steam Fitting	5	19	14	22	2	2				7	71
Carpentering	23	46	69	71	12	3	1	9		12	246
Wheelwrighting	10	7	17	11	3	7	3			8	66
Tinsmithing	1	1								2	4
Woodwork Machinery		1						1			2
Upholstery		3	6	2						2	13
Auto Mechanics	2	28	17	7	5	2		1		13	75
Printing	9	17	11	25	5	8		3		4	82
Cabinetmaking		3	19	1	1			1	4	3	32
Vertical Total	90	218	234	294	45	35	6	33	7	89	1,056

The largest number of graduates (246) have finished carpentry, but there are almost as many following the professions as there are in skilled and semiskilled work combined. More graduates from the wheelwrighting and blacksmithing department have gone into professional work than have stayed in skilled and semiskilled vocations. The auto mechanics division shows the same tendency as most of the other divisions; out of a total of seventy-five graduates, seventeen are in professional pursuits, while only twelve are found in skilled or semiskilled lines.

The printing department has graduated eighty-two students, of whom twenty-five are in skilled lines, eleven in pro-

have followed professional lines are as follows:

	Trade	Ratio
1.	Tailoring	3.75
2.	Printing	2.27
3.	Bricklaying	2.11
4.	Plumbing	1.54
5.	Carpentry	1.03
6.	Painting	1.00
7.	Machinery	.95
8.	Wheelwrighting	.64
9.	Auto mechanics	.60
10.	Upholstery	.33
11.	Shoemaking	.33
12.	Cabinetmaking	.05

The results of the ranking show that tailoring, printing, bricklaying, and plumbing stand highest in the list. That is, there are one and a half chances to one that trade graduates have entered skilled work rather than professional lines.

The median ratio of skilled to professional work as a line of endeavor is .95 to 1. That is, a trade graduate's median chance of following a trade rather than a profession is ninety-five to one hundred.

Classification of Occupations Which College Trade Graduates Have Entered, Based upon Occupational Rank

The jobs which graduates of the trades have entered were classified on a scale based on the intelligence, capacity or skill, education, and training required in a given pursuit. This scale was used by Dr. Woody in his study of the high-school students of the state of Michigan. The classification groups according to rank are as follows:

Grade 1. Unskilled Manual Occupations
Grade 2. Semiskilled Occupations
Grade 3. (a) Skilled Manual Occupations
(b) Skilled White Collar Occupations
Grade 4. (a) Subprofessional Occupations
(b) Business Occupations
(c) Minor Supervisory Occupations
Grade 5. (a) Professional (linguistic) Occupations
(b) Professional (scientific) Occupations
(c) Managerial and Executive Occupations

Table 38 gives the per cent of graduates from each trade school who have entered the various grades of jobs indicated by the above ranking.

Table 38

PER CENT OF TRADE GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE WHO HAVE ENTERED CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO RANK

	Occupations											
	Unskilled Manual	Semiskilled	Skilled Manual	Skilled White Collar	Subprofessional	Business	Minor Supervisory	Professional Linguistic	Professional Scientific	Managerial and Executive	Total	Per cent of Total
Painting			24.3	4.8		4.8		19.5	2.4		41	3.9
Bricklaying			35.8	5.7		5.1		13.4	4.4		156	14.9
Shoemaking			12.4	12.4		4.1		24.9			24	2.2
Tailoring		1.2	44.8	4.5		2.5		11.6	.6		154	14.7
Machinist	1.1		25.8	4.4				22.4	2.2		89	8.5
Plumbing	1.4		30.9	1.4		1.8		16.9	2.8		71	6.7
Carpentry	.8	.8	30.6	2.5		.8		27.8	2.1		235	22.4
Wheelwrighting		1.5	22.7	1.5		.9		25.7	1.5		66	6.3
Tinsmithing											4	.4
Woodworking				.5							2	.2
Upholstering			15.3					38.4	7.6		13	1.2
Auto Mechanics	2.6		10.6	3.9		2.6		21.3	1.3		75	7.1
Printing	1.2	4.8	30.4	3.6		6.1		15.8	1.2		82	7.8
Cabinetmaking			9.1	3.0				57.5			33	3.1
Total	7	9	310	41		32		220	22		1,045	
Per cent of Total	.7	.8	29.6	3.9		3.0		21.0	2.1			

This classification, while based upon intelligence and training as well as upon socioeconomic status, compares rather closely (in respect to the per cent of those who fall in the categories of skilled manual, business, and professional with the percentage occupational classification in Table 40, which, in turn, was based upon wage rate and plant classification as to whether work performed was unskilled, semiskilled, skilled, or professional.[3]

Comparing the two type classifications as to the per cent falling in each category gives Table 39.

Table 40

AVERAGES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TRADE GRADUATES WHO ENTERED SKILLED, PROFESSIONAL, AND BUSINESS CAREERS

Group Classification	Per cent
Average Skilled	1) 24.4 2) 22.3
Standard Deviation Skilled	1) 10.3 2) 11.7
Average Professional	1) 25.8 2) 26.1
Standard Deviation Professional	1) 11.2 2) 13.0
Average Business	1) 3.1 2) 3.7
Standard Deviation Business	1) 3.2 2) 3.0

Table 39

PER CENT OF TRADE STUDENTS WHO HAVE ENTERED SKILLED, PROFESSIONAL AND BUSINESS CAREERS, CLASSIFIED BY RANK OF OCCUPATIONS, BY WAGE RECEIVED, AND BY PLANT SKILL

Trade School	Skilled		Professions		Business		Average		
	1	2	1	2	1	2	Sk.	Prof.	Bus.
Painting	24.3	21.9	21.4	21.9	4.8	4.8	23.1	21.6	4.8
Bricklaying	35.8	36.2	17.8	17.1	5.1	5.7	36.0	17.4	5.4
Shoemaking	12.4	8.3	24.9	24.9	4.1	4.1	10.7	24.9	4.1
Tailoring	44.8	43.4	12.2	11.6	2.5	3.2	44.1	11.9	2.8
Machinery	25.8	22.4	24.6	23.5			24.1	24.0	
Plumbing	30.9	30.9	19.7	19.7	1.8	2.8	30.9	19.7	2.3
Carpentry	30.6	28.8	29.7	28.0	.8	1.2	29.7	28.8	1.0
Wheelwrighting	22.7	16.6	27.2	25.6	9.0	10.6	19.6	26.4	9.8
Upholstery	15.3	15.3	46.0	46.1			15.3	46.0	
Auto Mechanics	10.6	9.3	22.6	22.6	2.6	2.6	9.9	22.6	2.6
Plumbing	30.4	31.4	17.0	13.4	6.1	9.7	30.9	15.2	7.9
Cabinetmaking	9.1	3.1	57.5	59.3			6.1	58.4	
Total	310	294	242	234	32	40			
Per cent	29.6	27.6	23.1	21.9	3.0	3.7	29.1	22.5	3.3

Legend: Sk. = skilled; Prof. = professional; Bus. = business; 1 = rank classification; 2 = classification based on wage and plant opinion of skilled work.

This table, which compares the two classifications, is interpreted as follows: in the painting trade school, by the rank classification, 24.3 per cent of the graduates entered skilled lines of work, whereas 21.9 per cent entered skilled work according to the classification based on wages received at the given job, whether or not in the opinion of the plant authorities the job was a skilled job.

The two classifications agree rather closely when the averages and standard deviations for skilled work, the professions, and business are computed, as can be seen from Table 40.

The standard deviations for the two classifications of business are so large, however, that it is doubtful if these percentages are very reliable, but for the same reason those for skilled work and the professions evidently are reliable. Hence, as the differences between the classifications are small, they can be averaged--that is, the two averages for the

3. Armstrong, op. cit.

skilled, professional, and business groups can be averaged and averages converted (Table 41) into a statement of chances in a thousand that trade graduates have entered one of the three occupational groups mentioned above.

Table 41

CHANCES IN ONE THOUSAND THAT TRADE GRADUATES HAVE ENTERED SKILLED, PROFESSIONAL, OR BUSINESS LINES

Trade	Chances in 1,000 of Entering		
	Skilled Work	Professional Work	Business
Painting	231	216	48
Bricklaying	360	174	54
Shoemaking	107	249	41
Tailoring	441	119	28
Machinery	241	240	--
Plumbing	309	197	23
Carpentry	297	288	10
Wheelwrighting	196	264	98
Upholstery	153	460	--
Auto Mechanics	99	226	26
Printing	309	152	79
Cabinetmaking	61	548	--
All Trades	291	225	33

This table can be interpreted to indicate that the chances are 231 in 1,000 that graduates in painting have gone into skilled lines; 216 in 1,000 that they have entered professional work; and 48 in 1,000 that they have entered business.

More graduates from tailoring, bricklaying, plumbing, and printing have entered skilled lines than those from the other trades. On the other hand, more from wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, painting, and bricklaying have gone into business than those from the other trades.

A comparison between the per cent of workers in the United States with the per cent of trade graduates of this college who are engaged in skilled, manual, professional, and business lines, indicates the following results: twenty-nine and three tenths per cent of the total American workers have gone into skilled manual trades, as against 29.6 per cent of the trade graduates for the same classification.

Of the total number of Americans gainfully employed as wage earners 5.3 per cent have entered professional lines, while 23.1 per cent of the trade graduates of the college have gone into professional work. Business engages 6.7 per cent of the American workers and 3 per cent of the college trade graduates.[4]

Trends in the Occupational Distribution of Trade Graduates and Trends in the Industrial Pattern of the United States, since 1890

During the first six years of the trade schools at the college, from 1889 to 1894, there were only two graduates, one of whom died, the other entered business. Between 1895 and 1900, of the forty-four graduates in the trades, 22 per cent are dead, 27 per cent entered the professions, and 22 per cent entered skilled or semi-skilled lines.

Many listed under professional in Table 37 entered teaching, but the remarkable fact is that so many trade graduates entered the professions when there was general expansion in industrial lines, and an increasing number of the Negro population were finding industrial employment. This pattern and tendency are evident from Table 42 which shows the percentage of Negroes in the various industrial groups in the United States for three decades.[5]

During this period agriculture accounted for more than 50 per cent of all persons following occupations for each decade, while the professional group rose from less than .5 per cent of all persons gainfully engaged, to only 1.27 per cent in 1910.

The average rate of increase for three decades was as follows: professions, 27 per cent; trade and transportation, 56 per cent; manufacturing, 130 per cent.

4. R. O. Beckman, "Gauging Occupational Rank," Journal of Personnel Research, Dec., 1934, XIII, 225ff.
5. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Negro Population: 1790-1915 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918).

Table 42

PER CENT OF NEGROES IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIAL GROUPS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEARS 1890, 1900, AND 1910, ALSO THE DECADE PER CENT THAT EACH GROUP REPRESENTS OF ITS TOTAL FOR THE THREE DECADES

Industrial Group	1890	1900	1910
Agriculture			
Per Cent of Total of Groups	56.23	53.68	55.49
Per Cent of Agriculture	25.59	31.73	42.66
Professions			
Per Cent of Total of Groups	.45	1.18	1.27
Per Cent of Professions	23.05	32.02	44.92
Trade and Transportation			
Per Cent of Total of Groups	4.74	5.23	6.44
Per Cent of Trade & Transportation	21.14	30.32	44.92
Manufacturing			
Per Cent of Total of Groups	6.80	6.89	10.64
Per Cent of Manufacturing	20.15	26.53	53.31
Domestic and Personal Service			
Per Cent of Total of Groups	31.13	33.01	26.49
Per Cent of Domestic Service	26.34	36.28	37.37
Vertical total	3,073,164	3,992,337	5,192,535
Per Cent	25.07	32.56	42.36

Most of the skilled trades are in the manufacturing category; thus, while the trades were increasing at a rate double that of the professions, many trade graduates were entering the professions despite the fact that the per cent of trade graduates entering professions decreased an average of 7 per cent in the eighteen years between 1895 and 1912. The per cent of trade graduates increased on an average of 8 per cent during these same years.

Between 1901 and 1906, 16 per cent of the entire total of 1,056 trade graduates finished. Of the 173 graduates of this period, 13 per cent followed trades, 6 per cent entered government service and 4 per cent went into business.

In the period from 1907 to 1912, there were 209 graduates from the trade school. Of these 20 per cent went into the professions, 30 per cent into the crafts, and nearly 5 per cent into business. In fact, the twelve years from 1901 to 1912 showed the maximum number of trade graduates who entered business.

The increase in national trade and transportation was 9 per cent between 1890 and 1900, and 18 per cent between 1900 and 1910. The six years from 1913 to 1918 witnessed the greatest number of graduates from the crafts, 224 in all. In these years, 22 per cent entered the professions, while 31 per cent entered skilled or semiskilled activities. Smaller numbers went into business and government service--3 and 4 per cent respectively.

Although Table 42 does not cover the period beyond 1910, and so does not offer a statistical comparison between the general occupational tendency and the trade graduate, the years immediately following the war were marked by 41 per cent of the graduates selecting professional occupations, while 26 per cent chose skilled and semiskilled work. Between 1910 and 1930 the national economic structure of Negro life was altered from a wholly agrarian to a mixed farming and industrial economy. The race was transformed from a rurally inclined people to a people headed toward the great cities, so it was small wonder that between 1913 and 1924, 28 per cent of the graduates went into the professions, and another 28 per cent entered skilled and semiskilled trades. These were good times! Wanderlust possessed the Negro, a

fact proved by the United States Census, which shows that this was a period of migration to the cities of the North.[6]

The pattern of industrial and commercial life was evolving. Reliable statistics show that the number of Negroes in agriculture dropped over 18 per cent in twenty years, while in manufacturing there was an increase of 6 per cent, and in transportation a rise from 4.9 per cent to 7.2 per cent of all gainfully employed Negroes. Workers in trades increased 43 per cent, and those in public service 125 per cent. Professional service rose 92 per cent, and clerical occupations 75 per cent.[7]

Of the 204 who graduated from 1925 to 1930, nearly one-fourth, or 23 per cent, went into the professions, while 37 per cent went into skilled or semiskilled pursuits, and 3.5 per cent into business. In the period from 1931 to 1936 there were 71 graduates from the trade school. The occupational records for them are not complete, but 11 per cent were attracted by professional lines while 36 per cent were following skilled or semiskilled work.

The periods in which there was the greatest influx into the professions or trades is obtained (Table 43) by ranking the per cents of each of these categories for the successive six-year periods.

Table 43

RANK OF SIX-YEAR PERIODS IN THE PER CENTS OF TRADE GRADUATES WHO ENTERED PROFESSIONS OR SKILLED PURSUITS

Period of Graduation	Per Cent Entering Professions	Rank	Per Cent Entering Skilled Trades	Rank
1889-1894	***	***	***	***
1895-1900	27	2	18	7
1901-1906	13	6	28	3
1907-1912	20	5	26	5
1913-1918	22	3.5	27	4
1919-1924	41	1	24	6
1925-1930	22	3.5	34	1
1931-1936	12	7	29	2

The period of greatest gain for the professions was from 1919 to 1924, just after the war, when the Negro was in his best economic position. The periods when the professions were receiving the fewest graduates were 1901 to 1906, and 1931 to 1936. The period of greatest gain for the skilled trades was from 1925 to 1930, and of least gain from 1895 to 1900.

The median per cent of those entering the professions for the given period is 22, while the median per cent of those entering the skilled trades is 27.

Per Cent Trends in the Proportion of Negroes Who Have Entered Certain Trades and Professions in the Last Fifty Years

The United States Census Reports, since 1890, give the number of Negro males who have gone into certain trades and professions in the last fifty years, hence it is possible to note the per cent changes in these occupations for each succeeding decade of the census. Table 46 gives these changes for each of the selected occupations.

Table 44 was constructed by computing for each decade the per cent of workers in each of the twelve occupations. For instance, in 1890, 30.99 per cent of the total of all workers considered were in carpentry. The averages, standard deviations, and coefficients of variability of the per cent of change for each occupation were then computed.

In the fifty years, carpentry averages the highest per cent of the total Negro males in the twelve selected occupations. The ministry has the second highest average. Bricklaying the third, while law has the lowest average--less than one per cent.

If we use the averages as a basis it is possible to state the chances that a Negro entered one of these occupations when the list of jobs was limited to the number in Table 45.

The changes in the ten-year period in each occupation in 1930 as compared to 1890, are ranked from the highest to the lowest with the following results:

6. A. M. Edwards, "A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers of the United States," Journal of the American Statistical Association, Dec. 1933, p. 377ff.
7. Ibid.

Table 44

PER CENT OF NEGRO MALES IN CERTAIN SELECTED OCCUPATIONS BY DECADES AS COMPARED TO THE AVERAGE FOR FIFTY YEARS

Occupation	Census Year					Aver-age	Stand-ard Devia-tion	Coeffi-cient of vari-ation
	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930			
Carpenters	30.99	24.87	30.30	32.51	25.04	28.75	3.18	11.06
Bricklayers	13.40	16.96	12.86	10.07	9.04	12.44	2.78	22.34
Blacksmiths	15.50	12.35	9.69	8.24	4.41	10.04	3.75	37.35
Painters	6.09	6.78	8.88	8.82	14.02	8.92	2.74	30.71
Plumbers	.85	1.32	2.27	3.34	3.65	2.28	1.09	47.80
Cabinetmakers	1.40	1.56	1.07	1.01	1.04	1.22	.22	18.03
Teachers	10.92	9.14	7.01	6.00	6.92	7.99	1.78	22.27
Lawyers	.59	.84	.79	.89	.94	.81	.12	14.81
Musicians	.82	3.23	3.24	3.56	5.98	3.36	1.63	48.51
Ministers	16.82	18.14	17.37	18.38	18.96	17.93	.75	4.18
Physicians	1.10	1.85	2.13	3.25	2.86	2.36	.78	33.05
Salesmen	1.43	2.82	3.66	3.86	7.08	3.59	2.09	58.54
Total Number	71,969	84,703	100,314	105,226	129,393			
Per Cent of Fifty-Year Total	14.63	17.22	20.40	21.40	26.32	19.99	3.96	19.80

Table 45

CHANCES IN ONE THOUSAND THAT A NEGRO MALE HAS ENTERED ONE OF THE GIVEN OCCUPATIONS WHEN THE NATIONAL PATTERN OF OCCUPATIONS WAS LIMITED TO THOSE GIVEN BELOW

Occupation	Chances in 1,000
Carpenters	287
Ministers	175
Bricklayers	124
Blacksmiths	100
Painters	89
Teachers	80
Salesmen	36
Musicians	33
Physicians	23
Plumbers	23
Cabinetmakers	12
Lawyers	8
Total	200

1.	The per cent change for the total	+11.69
2.	Painters	+ 7.93
3.	Salesmen	+ 5.66
4.	Musicians	+ 5.16
5.	Plumbers	+ 2.80
6.	Ministers	+ 2.14
7.	Physicians	+ 1.76
8.	Lawyers	+ .35
9.	Cabinetmakers	- .36
10.	Teachers	- 4.00
11.	Bricklayers	- 4.30
12.	Carpenters	- 5.95
13.	Blacksmiths	-11.09

Painting shows the greatest increase in per cent change, then salesmanship, and third, music and music teachers. Blacksmithing stands last in rank--as might be expected since blacksmithing is almost a thing of the past. Today male teachers do not constitute as large a percentage of the teaching force as in the nineties. The two chief occupations in the building trades show a decrease owing, no doubt, to the slump, already noted, during the depression and to modern labor-saving devices. Painting shows no such change, since factory painting is included. Salesmen are increasing, probably because more Negroes have been forced to go into business as a result of the economic debauch, and because there is a growing

conviction on the part of the race that one solution to its economic plight is through business. The median per cent change falls between physicians and lawyers and shows an increase of one per cent.

The coefficients of variability of these occupations were computed and ranked to determine the degree of constancy in the per cent changes during the fifty years. In the following list, if the per cent chance has shown an increase variability then the coefficient has been marked positive, but if it has shown a decreased variability, it has been marked negative.

1. Salesmen	+ 58.54
2. Musicians	+ 48.51
3. Plumbers	+ 47.80
4. Blacksmiths	- 37.35
5. Physicians	+ 33.05
6. Painters	+ 30.71
7. Bricklayers	- 22.34
8. Teachers	- 22.27
9. Total of the twelve occupations	+ 19.80
10. Cabinetmakers	- 18.03
11. Lawyers	+ 14.83
12. Carpenters	- 11.06
13. Ministers	+ 4.18
Average	28
Standard Deviation	15
C.V.	53

Salesmen, musicians, and plumbers show the greatest degree of increasing variability, while blacksmiths, bricklayers and teachers show the greatest degree of decreasing variability.

The greatest degree of constancy is in the ministry. There has been little change in the proportion of ministers in the total of these selected occupations for fifty years.

There has been a net positive per cent change of variability of 11 per cent in the total occupational pattern. The average of the coefficients of variability is 28, with a standard deviation of 15.

A similar analysis of the per cent changes of increase, or decrease, of the number of male Negroes employed in certain occupations in 1930 as compared with 1920,[8] although much more detailed, will furnish a basis of comparison for the more recent period. In compiling the data, if there was an increase per cent in 1930 over 1920, the per cent was marked positive, and decrease, negative, but in Table 46, to avoid signs,

Table 46

SHOWING THE PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE OF EMPLOYMENT IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS FOR NEGROES IN 1930 AS COMPARED TO 1920

Occupations	Change 1930 to 1920
1. Apprentices to Building Trades	51
2. Apprentices to Others	43
3. Bakers	143
4. Blacksmiths	64
5. Brick and Stonemasons	110
6. Builders and Contractors	177
7. Cabinetmakers	105
8. Carpenters	95
9. Boilermakers	74
10. Compositors, Linotypers	136
11. Coopers	84
12. Dressmakers, Seamstresses	76
13. Dyers	171
14. Electricians	142
15. Stationary Engineers	82
16. Firemen (Other than Train)	79
17. Filers, Grinders	172
18. Foremen, Overseers in M.F.D.	177
19. Furnace Men	96
20. Jewelers, Watchmakers	53
21. Machinists	80
22. Managers, Officials M.F.D.	190
23. Millers	65
24. Milliners and Millinery Dealers	76
25. Molders	126
26. Machine Oilers	104
27. Painters	194
28. Paper Hangers	226
29. Plasterers and Cement Finishers	190
30. Plumbers and Steamfitters	134
31. Pressmen and Plate Printers	187
32. Rollers	166
33. Roofers	171
34. Sawyers	125
35. Shoemakers (Outside of Factories)	88
36. Skilled Occupations (Not Elsewhere Classified)	93
37. Stone Cutters	117
38. Structural Iron Workers	178
39. Tailors	109
40. Tinsmiths and Coppersmiths	91
41. Upholsterers	141
42. Building Industry	109
43. Chemical Industry	138
44. Clothing Industry	160
45. Cigars and Tobacco Factories	104
46. Clay, Glass, Stone Industries	99
47. Food and Allied Industries	108
48. Iron and Steel Machinery	101

8. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930. Population (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).

the per cents of increase have been added to 100 per cent and the per cents of decrease have been subtracted from 100 per cent.

The greatest increase per cent was among: bakers, builders, pressmen and plate printers, dyers, electricians, managers and officials in manufacturing, painters, paperhangers, plasterers, and plumbers.

The total plus and negative per cent change in all the occupations given in Table 46 is 1,822. The greatest portion, 77 per cent, represents an increase. Thus there was an increase in the occupational pattern of 1930 over 1920 of 54 per cent.

Relation of the Proportion of American Males Who Have Entered Certain Occupations, to the Proportion of College Trade Graduates Who Were Trained for and Have Entered the Same Occupation

Observing the percentage of graduates who have trained for certain trades at the college, the number of graduates who have entered these trades or professions, and the average number of males who have entered these trades or professions in America in the last fifty years, we note that the comparison is one of contrast rather than of similarity. Table 47 shows, for instance, that a larger percentage of carpenters are in industry than have entered the industry from the college or were trained by the college for carpentry.

The other occupations show a similar or contrasting discrepancy among the percentage of Negroes and trade graduates entering the occupation and those trained for the occupation but finding work of another type.

To enable further study of this question of the relationship between the per cent of trade graduates of the college who enter a given occupation, and the per cent of males in the Negro population who enter the same occupation, Table 48 was prepared giving the per cent of graduates who have entered twenty-three occupations, and the per cent of the general Negro male population who have entered these same occupations.

The correlation between the per cent of trade graduates entering the twenty-three occupations and the per cent of Negro males in the general population entering them is very high. The Pearson Product Moment r is -.979, while the r by Spearman's Rank Difference Method is -.947; the average for the two methods is -.963. The relation is inverse. The more the general Negro population enters these occupations, the less trade graduates enter them. The trades having the larger percentage of graduates trained for them show a smaller

Table 47

COMPARISON OF PER CENTS OF NEGRO MALES WHO HAVE ENTERED CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN FIFTY YEARS, THE PER CENTS OF TRADE GRADUATES WHO HAVE ENTERED THESE OCCUPATIONS AND THE PER CENT TRAINED FOR THEM

Occupation	Average per cent of Negro Males in the United States Entering Jobs in 50 Years	Per cent of College Trade Graduates in Occupations since 1889	Per cent of College Trade Graduates Trained for Job
Carpenters	28.75	4.86	23.1
Ministers	17.93	3.47	
Bricklayers	12.44	20.14	14.7
Blacksmiths	10.04	2.13	6.2
Painters	8.92	3.47	3.8
Teachers	7.99	46.87	
Salesmen	3.57	3.47	
Musicians	3.36	3.47	
Physicians	2.36	2.13	
Plumbers	2.28	14.86	6.7
Lawyers	.81	3.47	
Total		288	

Table 48

CORRELATION BETWEEN PER CENTS OF TRADE GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE WHO ENTER CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS AND PER CENTS OF THE GENERAL NEGRO MALE POPULATION WHO ENTER THEM

Occupation	Per Cents of Trade Graduates x	Per Cents of Male Population y
Tailors	12.54	3.72
Carpenters	12.91	17.36
Brickmasons	10.70	6.26
Wheelwrights	1.29	3.04
Painters	1.89	8.39
Printers	5.16	.95
Plumbers	2.58	2.53
Mechanics	3.87	14.31
Teachers	25.27	4.79
Lawyers	1.84	.65
Undertakers	1.29	1.44
Musicians	2.39	4.15
Druggists	.73	.70
Ministers	1.84	13.14
Dentists	1.29	.93
Physicians	1.29	1.98
Editors	.73	.18
Real Estate Workers	.73	1.91
Engineers	.92	2.80
Electricians	1.47	1.02
Contractors	1.29	1.37
Postal Service Employees	6.08	3.37
Salesmen	1.84	4.91
Totals	54	186,656

r-product rank = -.979
4-rank method = -.947

per cent in the population. While this inverse relation is difficult to explain and may not be casual, it has been shown earlier in this thesis that the tendency of college and trade graduates is away from the trades. It may be said, however, that occupational discrimination by the dominant group, the Negro's feeling of inadequacy resulting from slavery, and his subservient position in the national life, tend to drive the race into those trades and professions offering the greatest economic and mental compensation.

The Percentage of Trade Graduates Who Are Practicing Their Trade, or Teaching It

Ranking the 1,056 trade graduates of the college according to the per cent of graduates who are in, or teaching, the trade for which they were trained gives the following results:

Rank	Trade	Per Cent in Trade		Per Cent Teaching Trade
1	Tailoring	43.4	(3)	5.9
2	Bricklaying	36.2	(5)	4.4
3	Carpentry	28.0	(2)	11.7
4	Printing	25.4		
5	Painting	19.7	(4)	4.8
6	Plumbing	16.8		
7	Wheelwrighting	10.6		
8	Shoemaking	8.3	(1)	16.6
9	Upholstery	7.6		
10	Auto Mechanics	3.9		

Tailoring, brickmasonry, and carpentry have the largest permanency in the trades. The median per cent for the 10 trades is 18, implying that the chances are one to 5.4 that they will follow their chosen trade. Shoemaking has 16 per cent of its graduates teaching this trade, while bricklaying has only 4 per cent. The median per cent teaching a trade is 6 per cent, which implies that the chances are 6 in 100 of teaching the trade for which they were trained.

Occupational Stability

Dividing the number of graduates in a trade into the number of jobs they have engaged in since graduation gives a measure of the degree of stability of a given trade.

The ratios for the different trades follow:

Trade	Ratio
Carpentry	11
Tailoring	20
Bricklaying	23
Auto Mechanics	33
Printing	35
Painting	41

Trade	Ratio
Machinery	44
Plumbing	45
Wheelwrighting	53
Shoemaking	58
Cabinetmaking	59
Upholstery	74

Carpentry, tailoring, and bricklaying have the lowest ratios of occupational change, indicating that they have the highest degree of permanency.

The average ratio of jobs held to the graduates of a given trade is 41 ± 16, and indicates that there are 41 chances in 100 that the occupation will change.

The correlation between the per cent of trade graduates following their trade and the ratio of trade stability is .54. It may be observed, however, that tailoring, carpentry, and masonry head the two lists of graduates practicing a given trade and their permanency in the trade.

A Comparison of the Proportion of Trade Graduates of the College Who Have Entered Certain Skilled and Professional Pursuits, with the Proportion of Graduates of a Negro Liberal Arts College and Negro Workers in General Who Have Entered Skilled and Professional Work

With a view of establishing further comparative norms for judging the significance of the occupational trends among trade graduates, a comparison was made between the per cent of trade graduates, graduates of a liberal arts college, and Negro males in the United States who have entered a selected group of trades and professions. Data on the number of Negro male college graduates entering certain occupations were secured from the unpublished alumni records.[9] Those on the Negro males employed and unemployed in the United States were taken from the United States Census Report on Unemployment for 1930. The unemployed classes considered are Class A, persons out

Table 49

PER CENTS OF TRADE GRADUATES OF A NEGRO VOCATIONAL COLLEGE, GRADUATES OF A NEGRO LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE, AND GAINFULLY EMPLOYED NEGRO MALES IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1930 ENGAGED IN CERTAIN SKILLED AND PROFESSIONAL LINES. UNEMPLOYMENT CLASSES A AND B FOR SAME OCCUPATIONS, 1930

Occupation	Vocational Arts College	Liberal Arts College	Employment U.S. 1930	Unemployment Class A	Unemployment Class B
Carpenters, Masons, Painters	41.10	.16	24.51	6.99	47.69
Stationary Engineers	1.15	.16	2.06	2.76	2.82
Mechanics	4.84	.08	10.51	17.58	7.77
Contractors, Builders	1.61	.91	1.01	1.37	1.60
Printers	6.46	.91	.07	.07	.02
Musicians, Teachers of Music	3.00	5.30	3.05	5.92	4.08
Teachers	30.48	28.27	3.52	----	----
College Presidents	1.15	2.98	.44	----	----
Physicians, Dentists	3.23	38.30	2.14	----	----
Undertakers	1.61	2.57	1.05	.30	----
Druggists	.92	8.20	.51	.42	.29
Clerks	1.61	1.90	7.97	.30	.07
Lawyers	2.30	10.11	.48	5.40	2.69
Chauffeurs	.46	.08	42.61	59.56	32.88
Total Number	433	1,206	253,969	12,924	4,038

9. Unpublished alumni records of Howard University and Hampton Institute.

of a job, able to work, and looking for a job; and Class B, persons having a job, but on layoff without pay, excluding the sick or the voluntarily idle. The results of the comparison are given in Table 49.

The largest percentage of college trade graduates (over 70 per cent of the total of 433) have entered the building trades and teaching; the smallest percentage are chauffeurs and druggists.

Over three-fourths (76 per cent) of the liberal arts college graduates have gone into medicine, dentistry, law, and teaching, while the smallest percentage are found in the skilled crafts.

There were 253,969 American Negro males employed in the fourteen occupations given in Table 49. Of these, 24 per cent were in the building trades, 10 per cent were mechanics and 42 per cent chauffeurs. That is, 76 per cent of the total were in these trades. The smallest percentages were in the professions.

In Class A, unemployment was greatest among mechanics and chauffeurs, totaling 77 per cent of all unemployed in this category. On the other hand, there was no reported unemployment among teachers, physicians, dentists, and undertakers, although relief rolls testify to a different situation.

In Class B unemployment was greatest in the building trades and among chauffeurs, totaling 80 per cent of all the unemployed in this class.

Employment and Unemployment of Negro Males in Certain Trades in the United States and Illinois

To study further the trends in employment and unemployment of the Negro, Table 50 showing the percentage of Negro males employed in each of thirty-six trades and professions in the United States and in Illinois in 1930 was prepared and the percentage of unemployed in these same trades and professions computed. The figures of employment and unemployment for the United States, as well as the figures of employment for Illinois, were taken from the Census of 1930. The figures of unemployment for Illinois for 1935 were secured by the author from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration office in Chicago.

Table 45 was computed as follows: for the percentages of employment and unemployment the number of employed and unemployed in each occupation was divided by the total of employed and unemployed respectively. The ratio of unemployment to employment was computed by dividing the former by the latter.

In the United States in 1930, the largest per cent of employment in the thirty-six listed occupations of Negro males was found among chauffeurs, waiters, carpenters, mechanics, deliverymen, and brickmasons. The largest per cent of unemployment was among chauffeurs, waiters, carpenters, mechanics, deliverymen, and retail dealers.

The largest ratios of unemployment to employment in the United States in 1930 were in the building trades and ran as follows: plasterers, 293; brickmasons, 250; carpenters, 189; molders, 159; electricians, 135; plumbers, 114; mechanics, 112. The ratio of musicians was 120, actors 118, and in the packing industry 111. The smallest ratios were: real estate and insurance, 15; retail dealers, 25; switchmen, 30; shoemakers, 42; and clerks, 45.

The above data of employment and unemployment in the United States for male Negroes, may be compared with the ratios of employment for all workers in the United States for certain industries in 1936. Some significant figures are as follows: baking, 112; chemicals, 108; men's clothing, 96; plumbing supplies, 94; machinery supplies, 93; trade, 85; manufacturing, 84; hotels, 82; packing houses, 80; steel products, 77; blast furnaces, 77; electrical supplies, 72; railroad shops, 60; lumber, 54; stone, 54; and building construction, 37.[10] Building construction with its allied trades, it will be noted, is still at low tide, and indicates why Negro unemployment in this industry is so high.

In Illinois in 1935 the following occupations had high ratios of unemployment among Negro males: Switchmen, 435; railroad carshop employees, 346; stationary engineers, 353; plasterers, 371. Other

10. U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, June, 1936, Vol. XLII, No. 6 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937). The ratios have been multiplied by 100 to avoid fractions.

Table 50

PERCENTAGES OF EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT FOR NEGRO MALES IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES AND IN ILLINOIS. RATIOS OF UNEMPLOYMENT TO EMPLOYMENT

Occupations	1930 Per Cent of Employment U.S. x	1930 Per Cent of Unemployment U.S. Class A y	1930 Per Cent of Unemployment U.S. Class B z	1930 Per Cent of Employment Illinois w	1935 Per Cent of Unemployment Illinois u	Ratio Unemployment to Employment, U. S. y + x	Ratio Unemployment to Employment, Illinois, u+w
Actors	.60	.71	1.03	.92	.35	118	38
Artists	.05	.05	.01	.15	.17	100	113
Chemists	.07	.06	.04	.29	.08	85	27
Musicians	1.70	2.04	2.50	2.24	2.01	120	89
Teachers	1.96	.56	1.19	.44	.17	28	38
Building Contractors	.56	.51	.98	.80	.52	91	65
Retail Dealers	5.35	1.35	1.81	6.32	1.05	25	16
Clerks	4.45	2.03	1.65	11.94	6.56	45	54
Messengers	1.59	.99	.38	1.63	1.48	62	90
Real Estate, Insurance	2.03	.31	.33	3.20	1.22	15	38
Salesmen	2.01	1.09	1.00	2.85	5.95	54	208
Blacksmiths	1.24	.70	.83	.41	.17	56	41
Boilermakers	.22	.20	.38	.20	.17	90	85
Brickmasons	2.57	6.45	2.09	1.04	1.57	250	150
Carpenters	7.12	13.48	13.96	3.37	4.02	189	119
Electricians	.42	.57	.36	.67	.17	135	25
Stationary Engineers	1.14	1.03	1.72	.89	3.15	90	353
Plasterers	2.95	8.67	9.17	2.05	7.61	293	371
Plumbers	1.04	1.19	1.54	1.03	1.13	114	109
Shoemakers	.90	.38	.36	.64	.70	42	109
Factory Foremen	.53	.28	.62	.64	1.40	52	218
Machinists, Toolmakers	1.80	1.73	2.09	1.95	1.05	96	53
Mechanics	5.86	6.61	4.76	8.34	5.78	112	69
Molders	1.83	2.91	4.47	3.35	4.99	159	134
Printers, Engravers	.05	.03	.01	.08	.17	60	212
Tailors	1.52	1.30	.94	2.60	.87	85	33
Stationary Firemen	4.01	3.20	5.77	3.03	6.12	79	201
Bakers	.85	.76	.79	.75	.35	88	46
Deliverymen	5.55	4.12	3.45	1.93	5.60	74	290
Packinghouse Workers	1.38	1.54	2.27	8.72	10.85	111	124
Car and Railroad Shopmen	.80	.48	1.25	.83	2.88	60	346
Switchmen	.75	.23	.51	.28	1.22	30	435
Chauffeurs	23.78	22.40	20.14	14.39	6.47	94	44
Elevator Operators	2.73	2.51	.75	1.96	2.97	91	152
Waiters	8.73	8.15	6.30	12.38	7.09	93	57
Blast Furnacemen and Rollers	1.48	1.06	4.39	1.22	3.41	71	279
Total Number	454,107	34,352	6,594	27,355	5,710		

high ratios were among blast furnacemen, deliverymen, factory foremen, salesmen, printers, elevator operators, boilermakers, brickmasons, molders, stationary firemen, artists, plumbers, and shoemakers. Low ratios of unemployment were found among retail dealers, electricians, chemists, tailors, actors, teachers, real estate and insurance men, bakers, chauffeurs, machinists, and waiters.

Occupations of the College Graduates

The data of the preceding sections of this chapter have been concerned with the trade graduates of this typical vocational college. Although in the past they have constituted the majority of students, in the twenties the organization of this institution was changed to include studies of a vocational nature leading to a degree. The material on this phase of its activities is not as yet very extensive; however, it is given at this point for the more complete picture of the employment trends among the graduates. In the four-year interval from 1929 to 1932, there were 388 degrees granted by the college. There was an increase in the number entering rural teaching and library work. In four years graduates have gone into the following occupations:

Occupations	Per Cent
1. Teachers, City	30.70
2. Teachers, Rural	17.70
3. Teachers, College	13.80
4. Librarians	11.50
5. Unknown	5.30
6. Clerks and Bookkeepers	4.10
7. Miscellaneous	3.50
8. Rural Principals	2.50
9. Married and at Home	2.50
10. Graduate Students	2.00
11. Deans, Supervisors	2.00
12. County Agents	1.70
13. Builders	.77
14. Farmers	.25
15. Teachers and Librarians	.25
16. Student Librarians	.25
17. City Principals	.25
18. Dressmakers	.25

The majority of graduates are in teaching positions. Urban and rural teachers comprise almost 50 per cent of the total. The former group constitutes 30 per cent of the total of all occupations entered--an interesting trend when it is noted that the college has always stressed vocational and rural life.

Occupational Distribution of Graduates from the Various College Departments

Agriculture--The largest number of graduates from the school of agriculture have gone into college teaching--fifteen, or 29 per cent. They are teaching agriculture and related subjects. The second largest number, thirteen, or 35 per cent, have entered urban teaching, while nine have gone into rural teaching.

Business--Graduates of the school of business are bookkeepers, clerks, and stenographers in sixteen cases, or 34 per cent of the forty-seven graduates. Urban teaching has called ten, or 21 per cent.

Education--Graduates of the school of education have become urban teachers in fifty-one, or 39 per cent, of the cases. Rural teaching has attracted thirty-two, or 25 per cent of the graduates, while sixteen, or 12 per cent, have gone into college teaching.

Home Economics--Of the graduates of the home economics school twenty-seven, or 34 per cent, have gone into urban teaching; twenty-two, or 27 per cent, into rural teaching; and seventeen, or 21 per cent, into college teaching.

Library Science--Forty-five, or 86 per cent of the total of fifty-three graduates of this school have become librarians.

Building Construction--The data show that there have been seventeen graduates from this department; nine are teaching in city schools, four are in college, and three are builders.

The graduates of the various schools or departments have become teachers to the extent indicated in Table 51.

The median per cent of those who have entered teaching is 78, or more than three times the number from Negro colleges in general. Thus, while the college is vocational, its function is training teachers far more than is that of the Negro liberal arts college. The question therefore arises, is there any hope for the vocational

Table 51

PER CENT OF GRADUATES OF EACH SCHOOL WHO HAVE GONE INTO TEACHING

School	Per Cent of College Graduates	Per Cent in Teaching
1. Music	2.5	100.0
2. Home Economics	20.6	86.2
3. Education	33.5	86.1
4. Agriculture	13.1	78.8
5. Building Construction	4.3	76.4
6. Business	12.1	31.9
7. Library Science	13.6	1.8
Total Per Cent in College	100.0	
Total Number in College	388	

college to supply craftsmen? A study of the source of Negroes in the trades in New York shows that the greater number get their training as apprentices,[11] and that, since 1920, there has been a decline of 53 per cent in the number of Negro apprentices in the country as a whole. (See Table 46.)

Moreover, since it was shown in Table 41 that there are only 291 chances in 1000 of the trade graduates of this college entering a skilled pursuit, and since this college is one of the two great vocational colleges for Negroes in America, the question is again raised, where will the Negro get his skilled workers?

Scholarship as Related to Majors

A letter scale of A, B, C, and D is used at the college to indicate scholarship. The average grade for two hundred graduates by majors is as follows:

Major	Average Scholarship
1. Sociology	B
2. Business	B-
3. Education	B-
4. Library Science	B-
5. Music	B-
6. Science	B-
7. Agriculture	C-
8. Home Economics	C-
9. English	C-
10. Mathematics	C-
11. Building Construction	C
12. Physical Education	C

The median grade is B-, while the per cent distribution of grades for all majors combined was A, one per cent; B, 36 per cent; and C, 57 per cent.

The relation between major and scholarship is not especially significant, as the cross tabulation of grades and majors shows the usual clustering about the C grades.

Scholarship as Related to Position

Graduates were appointed in most instances to teaching or library positions. More than three-fourths, or 83 per cent, of two hundred and twelve graduates secured work in these two fields. The distribution of grades for one hundred and fifty-one graduates appointed to teaching positions is: A, 4.6 per cent; B, 29.7 per cent; and C, 65.4 per cent. Thus, in sixty-six cases out of a hundred, a "C" student secured a position as a teacher.

The distribution of marks among twenty-five graduates in library science placed in positions was as follows: B, 52 per cent and C, 48 per cent. Thus an average student and a "B" student seem to have an almost even chance of securing a position.

The Relationship between Major and Position

A study of 200 graduates in regard to position secured shows that 69.5 per cent of them became teachers. The percentage of those who had certain majors is as follows:

* * * * *

11. The Crisis, 1915-1934.

Major	Per Cent
1. Home Economics	28.0
2. English	17.9
3. Agriculture	11.5
4. Business	8.6
5. Education	7.9
6. Physical Education	6.4
7. Music	5.7
8. Building Construction	3.6
9. Mathematics	3.6
10. Science	
11. Social Science	

More than one-fourth of those appointed to teaching positions had majored in home economics, 18 per cent in English, and 11 per cent in agriculture. The notices for high-school teachers received at Howard University and at Fisk, place home economics first and English fourth, in the list of subject-matter teachers.

Color and Scholarship

A cross tabulation of shade of color and scholarship of the graduates shows the following average letter grades for various shades of color of two hundred and nine graduates:

Shade of Color	Grade
Black	C
Dark Brown	B-
Brown	C+
Medium Brown	C+
Light Brown	B-
Very Light	B-
No Trace of Color	B-

The median grade of the three darker shades is C+, while the median grade of the three lighter shades is B-.

Table 52 shows the relationship between color and scholarship. It has all the limitations implied by unreliability of grades and judgment of color by the examiner.

It is possible to determine the relationship between color and scholarship by using Yule's modification of Pearson's formula of mean square contingency:

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{S-N}{S}}$$

Computing the unknowns from the table gives S = 247.80, and N = 209, while C = .396. As C cannot be greater than .926, there is a very small relation between shade of color and scholarship. It is clear that no conclusion can be reached as to the advantages or disadvantages of racial mixture.[12]

Color and Position

Data were secured on two hundred and one students in regard to color and position. In this particular sample those going into teaching were brown or darker

Table 52

CROSS TABULATION OF COLOR AND SCHOLARSHIP OF GRADUATES OF THE COLLEGE

Color	A-	B-	B	B-	C+	C	C-	Total
Black					1	2		3
Dark Brown	5	7	7	7	14	11	8	59
Brown		1	1	2	2	2	2	10
Medium Brown	1	2	7	2	9	14	14	49
Light Brown	1	4	7	11	13	11	3	50
Very Light	4	4	5	5	5	10	3	36
No Trace of Color		1			1			2
Total	11	19	27	27	45	50	30	209

12. Otto Klineberg, Race Differences (New York: Harper & Bros., 1935), p. 222.

than brown in 36 per cent of the cases, while 41 per cent were light brown or lighter. The other occupation into which graduates went in any considerable number was library work, and of these 66 per cent were light brown or lighter.

Of the two hundred and one graduates, the results in respect to shade of color and proportion securing positions are:

Shade of Color	Per Cent of Total
Black	1.5
Dark Brown	29.3
Brown	6.0
Medium	19.4
Light Brown	25.4
Very Light	17.4
No Trace of Color	1.0
Total Number	201

Of those who secured positions, 36 per cent were brown or darker than brown, and 43 per cent were light brown or lighter. While it is a known fact that employers often ask for a "light girl," or a "real colored girl," yet on the basis of these unreliable measures of color shade no conclusion can be reached as to the influence of color in obtaining occupational placement. Testimony of examiners seems to justify the influence of color shade in securing work in particular cases, but not in general.

Summary

1. The number of trade graduates entering the professions has increased fourfold in thirty years, but during the last decade there has been a decrease. The number of those entering skilled lines has shown an eightfold increase in thirty-six years, but since 1930 there has been a decline; semiskilled lines have followed the same pattern. Agriculture has had only six trade graduates in the last forty years, and the number entering business or government has averaged less than one a year.

Tailoring, printing, bricklaying, plumbing, carpentry, painting, and the machinists trades have retained more of their trade graduates than have wheelwrighting, blacksmithing, auto mechanics, upholstering, shoemaking, and cabinetmaking, where the tendency has been for graduates to enter other lines of a professional nature. The effects of technological changes will account in part for this shift. Interviews with the Director of the Trade department, and the head of the Building Trades division of the college confirmed these tendencies, while the United States census of occupations for 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930 shows that the number of Negroes entering these trades has greatly increased.

A proportionate number of American workers and of trade graduates have gone into skilled lines, but the proportion of trade graduates entering professions is nearly four times that of American workers following the professions. Business engages 6.7 per cent of the American workers and 3 per cent of the college trade graduates.

2. Before 1900 more trade graduates entered professions than trades, while the general occupational trend of the Negro was toward agriculture, domestic service, and personal service. Between the turn of the century and the World War only 19 per cent of the graduates entered professional life, while 27 per cent stayed in the skilled crafts. Trade, transportation and manufacturing were increasing rapidly, and converting a greater percentage of the race into an urban and industrial people. After the war, however, the swing of trade graduates was back to the professions. From 1910 to 1930 the number of Negroes in agriculture dropped 18 per cent, and the number in professional service, clerical occupations, and industrial work increased rapidly.

Nearly one-third of the Negro males who have entered a dozen selected trades and professions in fifty years have been carpenters, 17 per cent ministers, 12 per cent bricklayers, and the smallest per cent lawyers. On the basis of these same occupations, there are 287 chances in 1,000 that a Negro male will become a carpenter, 179 that he will enter the ministry, 124 that he will become a bricklayer, and 8 that he will turn to the law. The greatest positive per cent changes in these fifty years have been in painting, salesmanship, and music; while blacksmithing, carpentry, bricklaying and teaching show the greatest negative per cent in the proportion entering these occupations. Salesmen, musicians, and plumbers have had the

greatest increasing variability of per cent change in their proportion of the total of the twelve occupations; whereas bricklaying and teaching have shown the largest negative variability. The greatest degree of constancy of change has been in the ministry.

3. In terms of the occupational trends between 1920 and 1930 in forty-eight selected trades and industries, the greatest increase of Negro males entering was found among bakers, builders, pressmen and plate printers, dyers, electricians, painters, paperhangers, plasterers, and plumbers--most of them in connection with the building industry, as is evident. The increase in the number of Negroes entering these forty-eight trades and industries in the period was 54 per cent.

Between the per cent of the general Negro male populations entering certain occupations and the proportion of trade graduates entering the same occupation, there is a negative correlation of -.963. In general these occupations correspond to those showing the highest entry in the preceding list, and indicate consequently that the occupational trend of the general Negro male population is against that of these trade graduates.

4. The percentage of graduates teaching their trade is higher than that of those entering their trade. Carpentry, tailoring, and bricklaying have the largest number of trade graduates following their trade and the smallest occupational turnover of graduates. The turnover is 41 ± 16, which is 10 per cent under that of common labor. There is a correlation of .54 between trade turnover and per cent of graduates following their trade.

Of the trade graduates 70 per cent have entered the building trades and teaching. The smallest percentage are chauffeurs and druggists. In the fourteen occupations listed in Table 49, in which 253,969 Negroes were employed, 24 per cent of these were in the building trades, 42 per cent were chauffeurs, and 19 per cent mechanics. Chauffeurs, mechanics and workers in the building trades showed the greatest unemployment in Classes A and B combined, although these groups were among those which also had the largest employment. The groups showing the smallest ratio of unemployment to employment were real estate and insurance men, retail dealers, switchmen, shoemakers, and clerks.

In 1936 the trends of general employment in the United States for all workers in certain industries were in terms of index numbers as follows: baking, 112; men's clothing, 96; plumbing supplies, 94; machinery supplies, 93; trade, 85; manufacturing, 84; and hotels, 82. The lowest index (37) was in building construction. This pattern is closely related for that of Negro employment.

5. Of the graduates of the college departments, 30 per cent are in urban teaching, and 17 per cent in rural teaching.

The relationship between scholarship and the major is not significant. Those with average scholarship ability and those with better than average have equal chances in securing a job. Of the graduates in economics 28 per cent secured teaching positions, as against 18 per cent of those in English. Color has apparently little significance in relation to scholarship, or in securing a position, except in particular instances.

Implications and Suggestions

1. Much of the material in this chapter points to the need of careful study, on the part of the vocational college, of the general industrial pattern of occupation and of employment and unemployment in the various fields, with the view of directing its students into the lines of most opportunity. A thorough and periodic survey of the occupations and occupational turnover among its graduates (comparing data with other institutions) will also make possible not only better vocational guidance but the adaptation of the program of instruction to present and probable future conditions.

2. The slump in building industries over a period of time suggests an oversupply of workers in that line, a condition which may continue for some time. The number of Negro professionals in the general population of the United States seems to indicate that too many trade graduates are entering professional lines. Stability of employment is more likely to be secured by avoiding the categories into which the largest percentage of Negro workers flock,

since these fields show the largest percentage of unemployment in times of depression.

3. The need of being aware of technological changes in industry and of trying to meet them in the preparation of students seems to be one important consideration for the vocational college program. It may also be desirable for the college to consider means of halting the urbanization of the race by giving information on actual occupational conditions in large cities, and seeking new lines of endeavor in rural districts.

4. It seems apparent that training for teaching has been a large function of the vocational college, often at the expense of training experts in trade, industry, and agrarian pursuits. Careful consideration should be given to the advisability of curbing this tendency if the Negro is to find his place in an industrialized world which demands specialization of advanced grade.

5. Outside the college there is apparent need for the breaking down of barriers to make possible the admission of Negroes to certain occupations--a thing that can be accomplished only by peaceful and scientific techniques on the part of the Negro public, and by the adequate preparation of Negroes in specialized lines.

Chapter IV

EMPLOYMENT TRENDS OF NEGRO COLLEGE GRADUATES IN NEW YORK CITY

The Negro college program, while primarily concerned with literary, scientific, and mathematical subject matter, has been forced to take a professional and vocational direction. The historical movements in the development of race higher education outlined in the beginning of this study sustain this fact. The poverty and youthfulness of the Negro race in America no doubt have much to do with the dilemma created by its efforts to escape from the barriers of a group within a group. It has sought the solace of academic lore, on the one hand, but, on the other, has been forced to appease hunger by obtaining at least a vocational veneer. To meet this situation even the academic college, while groping in a classic and humanistic retreat "within the veil,"[1] has shaped its program in the direction of teaching.

In many instances the Negro college student, in the effort to adjust himself, has been forced to look in the vocational direction, since his mind works better with things than with ideas. Symbolic intelligence with him is so recent that he has not achieved a high degree of scientific and literary scholarship. Thus because of his nature and of the economic conditions in which he finds himself, the Negro has been forced to turn his educational program toward the practical.

Very obviously, trends in employment of college graduates directly affect the Negro college program; hence a study of various phases of employment which affect the graduate are germane to the problem of this thesis. Employment data for the Negro college graduate are not available, to any large extent, but such data for a limited and recent period exist for New York City, in the excellent records of the New York State Employment Service.

New York City is an average urban community in which large numbers of Negro college graduates are gathered and in which they work under the more reasonable circumstances of economic equality. According to the United States Census in 1930,[2] there were 327,706 Negroes in the five boroughs of New York, with 224,670 in Manhattan, and most of these in Harlem. Of 140,464 Negroes of both sexes ten years old and over, who were gainfully employed in Manhattan in 1930, 5,678, or 4 per cent, were in professional service.

Samples of Lines of Work Open to Negro College Graduates in New York City

The United States Census for 1930 gives the number of Negroes in each of certain selected occupations.[3] While all these occupations were open to college graduates, forty-one have been selected as a sample of the type of jobs most suited to them.

Table 53 gives the percentages of 9,665 Manhattan Negro males found in each of these selected occupations, as well as the percentage of 132,543 Negro males found in the same occupations in the United States.

Ranking those occupations which have one per cent or more of the total list of forty-one jobs gives the following results:

Manhattan	United States
1. Clerks	Clergymen
2. Musicians, Music Teachers	Retail Dealers

1. W. E. B. DuBois, Souls of Black Folk (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1903).
2. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States: 1930. Occupations by States, Vol. IV (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).
3. Ibid.

Table 53

PERCENTAGES OF NEGRO MALES FOUND IN EACH OF 41 SELECTED OCCUPATIONS IN MANHATTAN AND THE UNITED STATES

Type of Occupation	Per Cent of Negro Males in Each Occupation	
	Manhattan	United States
Manufacturing		
Builders, Contractors	.77	1.93
Managers	.52	.23
Manufacturers	.60	.76
Transportation		
Garage Owners	.27	.48
Mail Carriers	3.97	4.74
Owners of Transfers	.46	1.39
Trade		
Bankers, Brokers	.19	.18
Stock Brokers	.17	.06
Insurance Agents	1.22	4.29
Proprietors, Managers	.72	.13
Real Estate Agents	11.59	2.69
Retail Dealers	6.96	18.38
Undertakers	.98	2.03
Wholesale Dealers	.05	.09
Public Service		
Marshals, Sheriffs, Detectives	.17	.32
Officials, Inspectors	.19	.17
Policemen	.47	.95
Professional Service		
Actors and Showmen	6.06	2.06
Architects	.07	.04
Artists, Sculptors	.61	.17
Authors, Editors	.51	.25
Chemists	.33	.26
Clergymen	2.71	18.51
College Presidents & Professors	.10	.84
Dentists	1.06	1.31
Lawyers	.79	.92
Musicians, Teachers of Music	13.64	5.84
Physicians	1.44	2.80
Teachers, Athletic, etc.	.23	.14
Teachers, School	.93	6.61
Civil Engineers, Surveyors	.24	.11
Electrical Engineers	.23	.08
Mechanical Engineers	.07	.05
Theater Owners	.22	.11
Domestic and Personal Service		
Hotel Keepers and Managers	.50	.63
Laundry Owners	.80	.18
Restaurant Keepers	1.26	4.04
Clerical Occupations		
Accountants	.21	.11
Bookkeepers, Cashiers	.95	.44
Clerks	36.50	15.28
Stenographers	.40	.19

* * * * *

	Manhattan	United States
3.	Real Estate Agents	Clerks
4.	Retail Dealers	School Teachers
5.	Actors, Showmen	Musicians, Teachers of Music
6.	Mail Carriers	Mail Carriers
7.	Clergymen	Insurance Agents
8.	Physicians	Restaurant Keepers
9.	Restaurant Keepers	Physicians
10.	Insurance Agents	Real Estate Agents
11.	Dentists	Actors, Showmen
12.	Undertakers	Undertakers
13.		Builders, Contractors
14.		Owners, Managers of Transfers
15.		Dentists

Twelve of the fifteen occupations given in the United States list also occur in the Manhattan list. Fifty per cent of the Manhattan list and about two-thirds of the United States list have to do with business. The average deviation of the difference between the per cent of males found in each occupation for the two lists is 2.21.

Of the Manhattan list 29.29 per cent fall in the professional group, as against 40.09 per cent of the United States list. If these percentages, however, are divided by 8.4 and 28 respectively (which in turn are obtained by dividing 3,662,893 and 81,912--the gainfully employed in the United States and Manhattan--by 132,543 and 9,665--the totals of the 41 selected occupations) the indices of professionals in the totals become 1.43 for the United States and 3.48 for Manhattan. That is, there are 2.4 times as many males in the Manhattan professional group as there are in the United States professional group.

Kinds and Extent of Negro Unemployment in New York City

Industrial Employment

Table 54 gives the industrial classification of New York City applicants for jobs, who, in May, 1936, registered in the United States Employment survey.[4] These applications which were examined by the United States Employment survey,

4. The Industrial Bulletin, May, 1936, p. 170.

represent a random sample of the unemployment situation among Negroes, as well as among other races, of New York City.

Table 54

INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATION OF NEW YORK CITY APPLICANTS FOR JOBS WHO REGISTERED IN THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SURVEY IN MAY, 1936

Industrial Classification	Per Cent in Each Group of Applicants	
	Other Races	Negroes
1. Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing	.36	.15
2. Extraction of Minerals	.08	.02
3. Building, Construction	18.60	8.18
4. Manufacturing	19.84	11.33
5. Commercial Service	.38	.16
6. Distribution	15.11	12.31
7. Service	11.83	40.83
8. Finance	1.81	.37
9. Government Service	1.93	1.21
10. Professional	4.31	4.78
11. Public Utilities	.73	.19
12. Transportation	5.24	5.35
13. Miscellaneous	19.72	18.09
Total number of applicants	211,139	32,767

The largest per cent of unemployment among Negroes is found in the domestic service group, then the unclassified. The professional and government service groups have about the same amount of unemployment for Negroes as for other races.

By applying to this material the industrial classification of the United States Census for 1930, we can determine the percentage of each industrial group unemployed in 1936--that is, insofar as the applicants are an index of unemployment, and the two classifications agree. Table 55 gives the per cent distribution of Negroes in New York City, found in the industrial classification of the census, and the per cent of applicants falling in each industrial classification. Domestic service has the greatest percentage of both employment and applicants.[5] Manufacturing is next and then trade. Public service has the smallest ratio of employment to unemployment, with professional service next.

Table 55

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NEGROES IN NEW YORK CITY FOUND IN CERTAIN INDUSTRIAL CLASSIFICATIONS AND THE PERCENTAGE OF NEGRO APPLICANTS FOR JOBS IN NEW YORK FALLING WITHIN THESE CLASSIFICATIONS

Industrial Classification U. S. Census 1930	Per Cent in Each Group According to U.S. Census 1930	Per Cent of Applicants for Jobs New York City Negroes 1936
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing	.11	.15
Manufacturing	20.57	19.71
Trade	9.74	12.84
Public Service	9.25	1.21
Domestic Service	53.55	40.83
Professional Service	3.72	5.35

Occupational Unemployment

Applicants for jobs are also classified by occupational groups. Table 56 gives the per cents found in each group for both Negroes and other races in New York City in 1936. The largest number of applicants come from service, which includes workers in domestic service, personal service, hotels, restaurants, and institutions. The next group is made up of productive and semiskilled workers; then come craftsmen and skilled workers. The clerical and the professional groups are next to the smallest in unemployment.[6]

Age and Unemployment

The percentage of active applicants among Negroes and other races who were in certain age groups are indicated in Table 57. The median age of the active Negro applicant is 37 years, while the

5. Officials of the Harlem employment Office and the Urban League stated to the writer that the greatest opening for Negroes was in domestic service. In fact, an examination of the employment cards of the League showed that in 1934 the League had practically abandoned other fields in its endeavor to place Negroes.

6. Ibid.

Table 56

NEGRO APPLICANTS FOR JOBS IN NEW YORK CITY CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS[7]

Occupational Group	Per Cent in Each Group	
	Other Races	Negroes
Professional, Technical, Admin.	9.00	3.33
Sales and Related Services	5.21	.66
Clerical	12.32	3.33
Service	14.69	66.66
Craftsmen and Skilled	27.96	13.33
Production and Semiskilled	19.90	16.66
Physical Labor--Unskilled	9.47	6.66
Unclassified	1.89	
Total number of applicants	211,139	32,767

median age of other races is 38 years.

Extent of Unemployment

It is difficult to determine the general extent of more recent unemployment among Negroes in New York City because no report has been made regarding it since 1930. In that year, however, according to the Report of the Census on Unemployment, there were 49,660 Negroes out of jobs and looking for them. In the same year there were 421,940 unemployed of other races. The Census of 1930 showed 193,773 Negroes and 2,993,686 of other races gainfully employed. On the basis of these figures the ratio of unemployment to employment among the Negroes was 25 per cent, and among other races 14 per cent.

Since the index number of employment for New York City in 1930 was 80 per cent of the 1926 figure for employment, and the 1936 index is 76, the number of unemployed Negroes equals 23 per cent of those gainfully employed.

Table 57

COMPARATIVE PERCENTAGES BY AGE OF NEGROES AND OTHER RACES IN NEW YORK CITY WHO APPLIED FOR JOBS[8]

	Age	Negro	Other Races
1	Under 20	.31	1.28
2	20	.52	1.17
3	21-24	10.23	14.71
4	25-29	16.95	13.53
5	30-34	17.15	11.47
6	35-39	18.29	13.12
7	40-44	14.04	12.91
8	45-49	10.55	11.80
9	50-54	6.27	8.98
10	55-59	3.61	6.00
11	60-64	1.48	3.26
12	65-69	.50	1.39
13	70 and over	.14	.32
	Total no. of applicants	32,767	211,139

Summary

1. Four per cent of the total Negro population of New York City are in professional service, and 5 per cent of the Manhattan population. Out of every one hundred Negro males in Manhattan in the forty-one selected occupations, the following have more than 1 per cent, ranked from high to low: clerks 36.5; musicians 13.6; real estate 11.5; retail business 7; actors or showmen 2.7; mail carriers 4; physicians 1.4; restaurant keepers 1.2; insurance agents 1.2; undertakers and dentists 1. The comparable list for the United States gives: clergymen 18.5; retail dealers 18; clerks 15; school teachers 6.6; musicians 5.8; mail carriers 4.7; insurance agents 4.3; restaurant keepers 4; physicians 2.8; real estate 2.7; actors and showmen 2.1; undertakers 2; builders and contractors; 1.9; owners of transfers 1.4; dentists 1.3; policemen 1. There are 2.4 times as many male Negroes in the professions in Manhattan as in the United States as a whole.

2. In 1936 at least 23 per cent of the gainfully employed were without work. Of the applicants for jobs, 41 per cent were domestics; 12 per cent came from wholesale and retail distribution; 11 per cent from manufacturing industries; 8 per cent from building and construction; 5 per cent from transportation and communication;

7. Officials of the Harlem employment Office and the Urban League stated to the writer that the greatest opening for Negroes was in domestic service. In fact, an examination of the employment cards of the League showed that in 1934 the League had practically abandoned other fields in its endeavor to place Negroes.
8. Ibid.

5 per cent from professional service; and 1.2 per cent from government service. The occupation coefficient of variability of unemployment for Negro applicants is 150 as against 66 for other races, and is due to a great extent to the large number engaged in domestic and personal service.

Implications

1. On the basis of the ratio of the number employed in each occupation to the total population social service, the ministry, the mail service, teaching, retailing, insurance, medicine and law, and the police force and other public services apparently offer the greatest opportunities for Negro males in New York City. This implication agrees with the conclusions of Mayor F. H. La Guardia's Inter-Racial Report of June 30, 1936.

2. There should be an increase, in the United States, in the number of professional Negroes to care for the Negro population, since 2.1 per cent of the Negro population are in the professional group, as against 7.2 per cent of other racial groups.

3. The number of Negroes in domestic service suggests that more Negroes should be trained for the crafts and for skilled labor, and that there should be more occupational diversification.

Negro Workers in Harlem: Supply and Demand

The data in the preceding section dealt with the occupational distribution and classification of the general Negro population in the borough of Manhattan and in New York City as a whole. The material in this section is primarily concerned with the situation as presented through the office of the New York State Employment Service most concerned with Negro workers, and so in a position to give the most adequate picture of their occupational and employment status.

Before the depression, and since,

Table 58

PERCENTAGES OF GAINFUL WORKERS IN THE UNITED STATES CLASSIFIED INTO SOCIAL-ECONOMIC GROUPS, BY COLOR AND NATIVITY: 1930[9]

Occupational Class	Native White Per Cent	Foreign Born White Per Cent	Negro Per Cent
All Occupations	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional Persons	7.2	3.9	2.1
Proprietors, Managers, Officials	21.0	17.0	16.9
Farmers (Owners, Tenants)	13.1	6.3	15.9
Wholesale and Retail Dealers	3.5	6.7	.5
Other proprietors, Managers and Officials	4.3	4.1	.5
Clerks and Kindred Workers	20.2	9.9	1.5
Skilled Workers, Foremen	13.3	18.6	3.2
Semiskilled Workers	16.5	21.5	9.4
Semiskilled in Manufacturing	9.3	14.6	3.3
Other Semiskilled	7.2	6.9	6.1
Unskilled Laborers	21.9	29.1	66.9
Farm Laborers	8.1	2.7	20.2
Factory and Building Construction Laborers	5.3	10.1	12.3
Other Laborers	4.8	8.0	9.4
Servant Classes	3.6	8.3	25.1
Total	35,173,370	7,411,127	5,503,535

9. A. M. Edwards, "A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers in the United States," American Statistical Association Journal, Dec., 1933, XXVIII, 377ff.

it has been stated in the annual reports of the Harlem Branch of the New York State Employment Service that the Negro college graduate had to take what he could get to do. Mr. Simmons, of the Harlem men's branch of the service, said in 1934 that "a Negro with an A.B. could find little to do in New York." Several of the officials in the Harlem office told the writer that, outside of relief jobs, there were few jobs open to Negro college applicants in New York. Data submitted later in this chapter, as to the placement of Negro college graduates, substantiate this point.

Thus the general labor market for Negro labor in New York City affects the college Negro as well as the other workers, and it is more than an empty truism that "Negro college graduates are the 'Red Caps' at Grand Central Station." Certainly while the Negro graduate is in the upper tenth in training, he is in the lower nine-tenths in seeking a job.

New York, however, as shown in Table 58, is in no way unique in this respect. In 1930, in the United States, Negroes were found in the occupational classes or social-economic groups (see Table).

Since the bulk of Negro workers is in the unskilled and semiskilled groups, the rise and fall of the general labor market affects the college Negro, since these trends are a part of the social pattern, of which his group is a small unit. An analysis of the movement of labor is therefore vital in the shaping of a college program for the race, in a society where the Negro college graduate has 2 chances in 100 of following the career of a professional; 16.9 chances in 100 of being a proprietor; 1.5 of being a clerk; 3.2 of being a craftsman or foreman; 9.4 of being a semiskilled worker, and 66.9 chances of being an unskilled worker.[10]

Registration of Negro Labor in the Harlem Office of the New York State Employment Service

In 1930 the average monthly male registration in Harlem was 301; in 1933 it was 497, or an increase of 65 per cent above that of 1930. As the employment index was 60 in 1933, and 75 in 1935, the registration was 423 in 1935, and the increase of registration above that of 1930 was 55 per cent.

In 1930 the average monthly registration of women applicants in the Harlem office was 551; for 1933 it was 2,356, and for 1935 it was 2,003. The increase of 1933 over that of 1930 was 346; while for 1935 the increase was 294.

In 1932 the Harlem office reached one-third, or over 70,000 of the employers of Manhattan. In that year the office registered 13,068 persons seeking jobs, or 9.3 per cent of the gainful workers. This was 37 per cent of all unemployed workers. There were 11,916 renewals, or 8.4 per cent of the gainful workers, comprising 33 per cent of the unemployed; and 7,436 help wanted orders were received, comprising 21 per cent of the unemployed, while 29 per cent or 10,288 persons, were referred to jobs--29 per cent of the total unemployment. Eighteen per cent, or 6,326 persons, were placed in jobs in that year, which was the most active year for the service, since, in 1932, the employment index stood at the low point of 53.[11]

Amount of Help Wanted: Placement of Labor

In 1930 the average monthly number of calls for male help was 201. In 1933 the number was 151 per month, and 186 in 1935. The decrease of male help wanted in 1933, below that of 1930, was 33 per cent, and 38 per cent in 1935. The average monthly calls for female help in 1930 were 469; in 1933 there were 580 calls, and by 1935 the figure rose to 667. Consequently, the increase for help wanted in 1933 was 40 per cent over that for 1930, and in 1935 there was an increase of 46 per cent over the base year 1930.

In the Harlem office in 1930, the average monthly number of placements for Negro males was 224, but by 1933 it had dropped to 106 per month, while in 1935 it rose slightly to 122. In 1933 the decrease in placements, under that of 1930, was 52 per cent, while in 1935 it slacked to 44 per cent.

The mean monthly placement of women

10. A. M. Edwards, "A Social-economic Grouping of the Gainful Workers in the United States," American Statistical Association Journal, Dec. 1933, XXVIII, 377ff.
11. The Industrial Bulletin, May, 1936 (Albany: New York State Dept. of Labor), p. 170.

was 401 in 1930. In 1933 it amounted to 432 per month, while in 1935 it increased to 497. The increase of placements in 1933 over 1930 was 7.7 per cent, with an 11.9 per cent increase in 1935.

Ratios of Help Wanted and Placement to Registration in the Harlem Office in 1930, 1933, and 1935

From 1930 to 1935, for males the total average monthly per cent change of help wanted to registration decreased 36.2 per cent. The decrease of 1935 below the base year was 31 per cent. The ratio of total monthly mean per cent change of help wanted to registration showed a decrease of 60.5 per cent. The decrease ratio from 1930 to 1935 was 51.4 per cent. From 1930 to 1933 the ratio of male placements to male registrants shows a decrease of 51 per cent; from 1930 to 1935 there was a 43.4 per cent decrease.

For women the total per cent change, in the ratio of placements to registrations, was 54.5 per cent decrease from 1930 to 1933. The per cent change of placements to registrations from 1930 to 1935 was a 42.4 per cent decrease.

Ratio of Help Wanted and Placements to Registration Plus Renewals for Certain Selected Industries[12]

For this phase of the study the industries selected for males were those of building, common labor, hotel, clerical, professional, transportation, wholesale and retail, manufacturing, and clothing. For women the industries selected were hotel, clothing, domestic, professional, clerical, and wholesale and retail.

Building trades. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals in the building trades, for men in Harlem was 20 per cent in 1932, and 8.6 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio was 15.6 per cent in 1932, and 3.5 per cent in 1933.

Common labor. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for males was 3.4 per cent in 1932, while in 1933 it was 3.9. The ratio of placements to registration plus renewals was 2.6 per cent in 1932, and in 1933, 3.2 per cent.

Hotel workers. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals in 1932 was 9.9 per cent for male workers. In 1933 it was 9.8 per cent. The placement ratio was 7.3 per cent in 1932, and 4.1 per cent in 1933.

The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for Harlem women workers in 1932 was 23.2 per cent; in 1933 it was 18.5 per cent. The placement ratio was 14.6 per cent in 1932; in 1933 it was 11.3 per cent.

Clerical workers. The help wanted ratio for men workers was 7.3 per cent in 1932, and 4 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio for men in 1932 was 5 per cent, and in 1933, 4 per cent.

The help wanted ratio for women workers in 1932 was 17 per cent; by 1933 it had dropped to 8.7 per cent. The placement ratio for women in 1932 was 8.1 per cent; in 1933, 3.6 per cent.

Professional workers. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for male professional workers was 6.2 per cent in 1932, and 3.8 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio in 1932 was 14.1 per cent, and in 1933, 1.9 per cent.

The average number of help wanted among women was so small--1 in 1932, and 3 in 1933--that the per cents of demand would be unreliable.

Transportation. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for male transportation workers in 1932 was 4.5 per cent, and 6.4 per cent in 1933. The ratio of placement to registration plus renewals was 2.7 per cent in 1932, and 4.2 per cent in 1933.

Wholesale and retail. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for males was 13.4 per cent in 1932, and 8.7 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio was 10.4 per cent in 1932, and 6.5 per cent in 1933.

The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals for Harlem women in 1932 was 40.9 per cent, and in 1933 it was 72.9 per cent. The placement ratio in 1932 was 200 per cent, while in 1933 it was

12. Data on the ratio of help wanted and placements to registration plus renewals for certain industries for Harlem Negro workers, for the years 1932 and 1933, were obtained by the writer at the New York State Employment Office in New York City.

33 per cent.

Manufacturing. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals was 87.2 per cent for males in 1932, and 64.9 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio was 64.7 per cent in 1932, and 46.2 per cent in 1933.

Clothing. The ratio of help wanted to registration plus renewals was 30.6 per cent for males in 1932, and 29.9 per cent in 1933. The placement ratio for men was 19.5 per cent in 1932, and 20 per cent in 1933.

The ratio between help wanted and registration plus renewals in 1932 for women in the clothing industry was 52.4 per cent, and in 1933 it was 33.5 per cent. The ratio between placement and registration, plus renewals, was 37.1 per cent in 1932, and 23.9 per cent in 1933.

Women domestics. In 1932, in Harlem, the help wanted divided by the registration plus renewals was 52 per cent; in 1933 it was 34.9 per cent. The ratio between placement and registration plus renewals in 1932 among Harlem women domestic workers was 30.6 per cent; in 1933 it was 24.4 per cent.

Summary

1. Between 1932 and 1933 all but two of the selected industries--transportation and common labor--showed a decline in the demand for men. Ranking the selected industries for men according to demand gives the following order:

1. Transportation
2. Common Labor
3. Clothing Workers
4. Clerical Workers
5. Hotel Workers
6. Wholesale and Retail Workers
7. Building trades
8. Professional service
9. Manufacturing

The median index of demand for the 9 industries for men, between 1932 and 1933, was 3.2 per cent.

2. All of the selected industries for women showed a decline in demand in 1933 under that of 1932. The selected industries for women ranked on the basis of demand gives the following order:

1. Hotel Workers
2. Clerical Workers
3. Domestic Workers
4. Clothing Workers
5. Wholesale and Retail Workers

The median index of demand for 5 industries for women, between 1932 and 1933, was 6.2 per cent.

The Number and Kinds of Degrees Held by College Negro Graduates Who Applied for Work in the Harlem State Employment Office

In the summer of 1934 the author made a study of the professional files of the Harlem State Employment Office and found the records, dating back to the beginning of 1932, of 306 Negro applicants having degrees.

The application cards for men showed the following degrees:

Degree	Number	Per Cent of Total
A. B.	80	45.4
B. S.	28	15.9
M. A.	17	9.7
Pharmacy	14	7.9
D. D. S.	12	7.8
M. D.	5	2.8
M. S.	4	2.3
LL. B.	4	2.3
C. E.	3	1.7
B. D.	2	1.1
M. B. A.	2	1.1
E. E.	2	1.1
S. T. B.	1	1.1
J. B.	1	1.1
Mech. Dental	1	1.1
Total	176	

Nearly one-half of the applicants held A.B. degrees; 73.3 per cent of the degrees were academic, while 26.7 per cent were professional.

Negro women applicants held the following degrees:

* * * * *

Degree	Number	Per Cent of Total
A. B.	91	70.0
B. S.	25	19.2
A. M.	6	4.6
Pharmacy	4	3.1
LL. B.	1	.8
B. Phil.	1	.8
M. S.	1	.8
B. Ped.	1	.8
Total	130	

Of the total degrees held by women applicants 90 per cent were academic, with the A. B. degree making up 70 per cent of these.

Colleges Represented among the Graduates Who Applied for Work

Of 155 male college graduates who registered in the Harlem office, 75, or 48 per cent, graduated from Negro colleges, and 80, or 52 per cent graduated from mixed colleges. Of these graduates 23 were men from Howard University; 10 from Lincoln University, in Pennsylvania; 7 from Johnson C. Smith; 4 from Virginia Union; and 4 from Fisk. Twenty Negro colleges were represented. Thirteen were graduates of Columbia University; 10 were from New York University; 8 from New York City College; 5 from California; and 4 from Colorado and Ohio. Thirty-three white colleges were represented.

Of 133 women graduates who applied at the Harlem office for work, 72, or 54.1 per cent, were graduates of Negro colleges, while 61, or 45.9 per cent, were graduates of white colleges. Of these graduates 21 came from Howard University; 13 from Fisk; 5 from Virginia Union; and 5 from Clark in Atlanta, Georgia. Twenty Negro colleges were represented among the graduates. There were 21 from Hunter College, 12 from Columbia, 8 from New York University, and 4 from Boston University. Eighteen white colleges were represented.

Ages of Applicants

The median age of 148 males was 31 years, that of the women 25 years. The median age of the two groups together was 28 years. The median of all the active Negro applicants registered in the New York Employment Office, and reported earlier in this chapter, was 37 years.

Number of Applications

The only records available showed that a total of 260 men and women college graduates applied for work in the Harlem office in 1933 and in the first six months of 1934: 53.1 per cent of these were men, and 46.9 per cent were women.

In the year and a half there were 1,300 professional applications. Of these, 260, or 20 per cent, were college graduates. Since there were 17,315 Negro applicants in the Harlem office during this time, the 260 college graduates were 1.5 per cent of the total.

Kinds of Work Applied For

At the Harlem office 119 men college graduates applied for the following types of work:

Application for work as	Number	Per Cent of Total
Clerk	33	27.7
Investigator	15	12.6
Teacher	8	6.7
Waiter	5	4.2
Recreation Worker	5	4.2
Bookkeeper	3	2.5
Porter	3	2.5
Chauffeur	3	2.5
Elevator Operator	2	1.7
Handy man	2	1.7
Social Worker	2	1.7
Bacteriologist	2	1.7
Other Workers	36	31.7
Total	119	

Of the 47 different types of jobs applied for 41, or 34.5 per cent, required a college education.[13] Such jobs as clerk, investigator, and recreation worker indicate that many of the jobs asked for were of an emergency nature, a fact which the office records substantiate.

There were 123 women college

13. R. O. Beckman, "Gauging Occupational Rank," Journal of Personnel Research, Dec. 1934, XIII, 225ff.

graduates asking for work under the following categories:

Application for work as	Number	Per Cent of Total
Clerk	22	17.8
Teacher	17	13.8
Recreation Worker	14	11.3
Health Worker	8	6.5
Social Worker	8	6.5
Interne	6	4.8
Domestic Worker	6	4.8
Investigator	4	3.2
Typist	4	3.2
Dressmaker	3	2.4
Statistician	2	1.6
Seamstress	2	1.6
File Clerk	2	1.6
Counselor	2	1.6
Waitress	2	1.6
Other Workers	21	17.7
Total	123	

Thirty-six different types of job were applied for. As with the men, many of the jobs indicate that they were of an emergency nature; and the Harlem office records indicate the fact that many of them were on the relief program.

Of the jobs asked for by the men 38, or 31.9 per cent, required vocational or technical training. Of those applied for by the women 61, or 49.6 per cent, required similar training.

Number and Kinds of Jobs in Which College Graduates Were Placed

Of the 119 male applicants who applied for jobs 82, or 68.9 per cent, were placed under the following headings:

Jobs Secured	Number	Per Cent of Total
Investigator (C.W.A.)	39	47.1
Pharmacist (C.W.S.)	6	7.2
Clerk	4	4.8
Teacher (E.W.A.)	3	3.6
Librarian	2	2.4
Recreation Worker	2	2.4
Clerk (E.W.A.)	2	2.4
Other Jobs	24	29.0
Total	82	

Most of the jobs in which college graduates were placed were government relief work, as is shown in the above list in which the projects are indicated: 69, or 83.4 per cent, thus filled emergency jobs; 13, or 10.9 per cent, were placed in jobs other than relief; while 37, or 31.1 per cent, were not placed at all. Sixty, or 74 per cent, of the jobs men were placed in would require a college education.

Of the 128 women graduates who applied for work 47, or 38.2 per cent, were placed in the jobs under the following classifications:

Job Secured	Number	Per Cent of Total
Investigator	13	27.6
Recreation Worker	8	17.0
C.W.S.	5	10.6
Clerk	3	6.3
Counselor	3	6.3
Librarian	2	4.2
Domestic Worker	2	4.2
Labor Lady	2	4.2
Clerk (C.W.A.)	2	4.2
Other Jobs	7	14.8
Total	47	

Although not evident from the table, at least 25, or 53.1 per cent, of these jobs were relief work. Twenty-nine, or 61.7 per cent, of the jobs women were placed in would require a college education.

Other Work Done by Applicants

Men applicants had worked in the following capacities before applying at the Harlem Office:

Worked as	Number	Per Cent
Teacher	35	23.9
Social Worker	7	4.7
Recreation Worker	7	4.7
Waiter	5	3.4
Dentist	5	3.4
Clerk	4	2.7
Chauffeur	3	2.0
Pharmacist	3	2.0
Salesman	3	2.0
Drug Clerk	3	2.0
Minister	3	2.0
Insurance	3	2.0

Worked as	Number	Per Cent
Manager	3	2.0
Law Clerk	3	2.0
Porter	3	2.0
Houseman	2	1.3
Draftsman	2	1.3
Post Office Clerk	2	1.3
Painter	2	1.3
Journalist	2	1.3
Advertising	2	1.3
Y.M.C.A. Secretary	2	1.3
Bookkeeper	2	1.3
Drug Store Owner	2	1.3
Physical Education	2	1.3
Counter Man	2	1.3
Presser	2	1.3
Valet	2	1.3
Singer	2	1.3
Other Workers	28	19.1
Total	146	

Of the men applicants 35 had followed teaching. This number accounts for 23.9 per cent of all reporting and agrees rather closely with the 27.6 per cent of teachers found among 7,160 college graduates, in the occupational study of this thesis.[14] The only noticeable high frequency of occupation is teaching, which is five times as large as any other group.

The applicants listed 560 distinct occupations under work followed. Eighty-nine, or 60.9 per cent, of these jobs would require a college education, while 29.4 per cent would require technical or vocational training on the high-school level. The high percentage of those jobs requiring a college education would suggest that there was a high percentage of unemployment among the professional group.[15]

Women applicants worked in the following capacities:

Worked as	Number	Per Cent
Teacher	51	28.9
Recreation Worker	14	7.9
Social Service Worker	12	6.8
Investigator	7	3.9
Domestic	7	3.9
Waitress	7	3.9
Typist	6	3.4
Clerk	5	2.8
Filing Clerk	4	2.2
Interne	3	1.7
Secretary	3	1.7
Stenographer	3	1.7
Seamstress	3	1.7
Bookkeeper	2	1.1
Dressmaker	2	1.1
Counselor	2	1.1
Nurse	2	1.1
Other Workers	43	24.4
Total	176	

While 60 distinct jobs are found in the list of other work followed by women applicants, almost 29 per cent of the total followed teaching. Recreation, social work, clerical, stenographic, and domestic work were followed by 16 per cent of the women. Of these jobs 107, or 60.7 per cent, would require a college trained worker, while 60, or 34 per cent, would require training on the high-school vocational level.

Reasons for Leaving Last Job

Of the reasons given by 118 male applicants for leaving the last job, 77.9 per cent were economic in nature and beyond the control of the men; 18.6 per cent of them had resigned. Of those given by 80 women, 58.7 per cent were economic in nature and beyond the control of the applicant; 41.2 per cent of them had resigned. Thus on the average 68 per cent of the men and women lost their jobs because of economic factors beyond their control. Of course, the reliability of this figure depends upon the truthfulness of their statement.

Relation of Degree, Occupation, and Work Asked For

Men. According to Table 59, which shows the relation of degree, occupation,

14. Supra, p. 00.

15. The occupation classification of the Census has been used to determine jobs which generally require a college education or high-school vocational education.

Table 59

NEW YORK EMPLOYMENT SERVICE--PROFESSIONAL APPLICANTS (MEN). CROSS TABULATION OF DEGREE, OCCUPATION, AND WORK ASKED FOR

Occupation and Degree	Work asked for: Musicians	Actors	Semiskilled	Teachers	Clerks	Engineers	Social Workers	Bacteriologists	Unskilled	Chauffeurs	Bookbinders	Doctors	Stenographers	Artists	Total
Actors A.B.	1	1													2
B.S.			1												1
Architects A.B., M.A.			2												2
Artists A.B., M.A.				1										1	2
Chemists A.B.				1	1										2
D.D.S.			1												1
Dentists A.B., D.D.S.							1								1
D.D.S.					2										2
Draftsmen B.S.					1	1									2
Lawyers A.B., L.L.B.					1										1
L.L.B.					1										1
A.B.					1										1
Librarians A.B.					1										1
Musicians A.B.	1		1	1	1		1								5
Newspapermen A.B.			1				4								5
Pharmacists A.B.							1								1
B.S.							1								1
Ph.G.					2				1						3
Physical Ed. B.S.			2				2		1						5
A.B.				1	4								1		6
Physicians M.D.								1							1
M.A.				1											1
Recreational Workers A.B. (M.A.)			1		2		1			1					5
A.B., B.D.							1								1
B.S.							1								1
Social Service A.B.			1	1			1	1							4
M.D., B.D., D.D.S.												1			1
Teachers A.B.			3	2	7		2		1	1	1				17
M.D.												1			1
A.B., M.A.			1	1	5		2		1						10
B.S. (M.S.)					7		3		1						11
M.B.A.			1				1			1					3
E.E.							1								1
B.S., S.T.B.							1								1
B.D., B.S.				1											1
A.B., M.B.A.									1						1
Civil Engrs: C.E.			1		1	1	1								4
Grand Total	2	1	16	10	37	2	25	2	6	3	1	2	1	1	109

and work asked for, of 109 men applicants, 16 per cent applied for the occupation at which they had been working. Only 4 out of 46 teachers who held the A.B. or B.S. degree applied for teaching. Of 5 musicians holding the A.B. degree only one applied for music. Four out of 5 newspapermen holding the A.B. degree applied for social work. Two out of 5 with physical education majors and B.S. degrees applied for social work, and two for semiskilled work. Five men who were recreationalists with A.B. degrees applied for jobs in four separate fields. In all, 17 occupations were represented by the applicants, 16 of whom applied for semiskilled work; 10 for teaching positions; 37 for clerical work; and 25 for social work.

From the table it is clear that there is little correlation between occupation, degree, and work asked for.

Women. Only 16 per cent of the 106 women applicants applied for the work at which they had been employed or for which their training called, as shown in Table 60.

Only 3 of 23 actresses with the A.B. degree applied for acting, while 10 of 22 social workers with the A.B. and B.S. degrees applied for social work. Of 39 teachers, only 2 applied for teaching. All of them held the A.B. or B.S. degree. There were 19 occupations represented among the women applicants, yet 41 of them applied for social work, 27 for clerical work, and 13 for teaching.

As in the case of men it is clear there is little correlation between training, work followed, and work asked for.

* * * * *

Table 60

NEW YORK EMPLOYMENT SERVICE--PROFESSIONAL APPLICANTS (WOMEN)
CROSS TABULATION OF DEGREE, OCCUPATION, AND WORK ASKED FOR

Occupation and Degree	Work asked for												
	Social Workers	Housekeepers	Clerks	Unskilled	Actresses	Teachers	Semiskilled	Chemists	Stenographers	Med. Surgeons	Journalists	Researchers	Total
Actresses A.B.	6	3	10	1	3								23
B.S.	1		1										2
Librarians B.S.					1								1
Chemists (Bact.)							1						1
B.S.							1						1
Musicians A.B.		1	1					1					3
Night Club Workers A.B.	1												1
Professional Subj. A.B.	1		1										2
Recreational Works A.B.	1		1			2							4
Ph.B.	2					1							3
B.Ped.						1							1
Social Workers B.S.			1										1
A.B.	10	1	6			3			1	1			22
B.S., M.A.						1							1
Teachers B.S.	3		1			1	1						6
A.B. (M.A.)	17	1	5			1	4		2	1	1	1	33
Grand Total	42	6	27	1	4	10	7	1	3	2	1	1	105

Table 61

NEW YORK EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, PROFESSIONAL APPLICANTS (MEN)
CROSS TABULATION OF DEGREE, OCCUPATION, AND OTHER JOBS

Occupation and Degree	Other Jobs																		
	Semiskilled	Clerks	Unskilled	Dentists	Businessmen	Draftsmen	Engineers	Social Workers	Pharmacists	Teachers	Lawyers	Ministers	Musicians	Chauffeurs	Journalists	Oculists	Researchers	Doctors	Total
Chemists B.S.	1																		1
A.B.		1																	1
Dentists D.D.S.				3															3
Draftsmen B.S.	1					1													2
Civil Eng. C.E.		1	1				2												4
Lawyers A.B., LL.B.		1																	1
LL.B.					1														1
A.B.		1																	1
LL.B.,A.B.,M.A.											1								1
B.S.,LL.B.										1									1
Librarians, A.B.												1							1
Musicians, A.B.	1	2											4						7
Newspapermen, A.B.		3	2																5
Pharmacists A.B.		2																	2
Ph.C.		1							2										3
B.S.									1										1
Phys. Ed. M.S.(B.S.)		2						4											6
A.B.		2	1					2		1									6
Recreation Workers B.S.								1											1
A.B. (M.A.)					1			3						2	1				7
A.B., B.D.											1								1
Social Service																			
A.B. (M.A.)		1						2							1				4
B.S., D.D.S.																		1	1
Teachers B.A.	2	2	1					1		18				1	1		1		27
M.D.										1									1
M.B.A.										1									1
B.S. (M.S.)		2								5						1			8
B.A., M.S.																		1	1
B.D., B.S.										1									1
B.S., M.S.	1																		1
A.B., M.B.A.															1				1
Ph.B., M.A.										1									1
E.E.							1	1											2
B.S.T.																	1		1
Grand Total	6	21	5	3	2	2	3	13	3	29	2	1	4	3	4	1	2	2	106

Degree, Occupation, and Other Jobs

Men. According to Table 61, which shows the relation of degree, occupation, and other jobs followed by male applicants, 48 men, or 45 per cent of the 106 applicants, had previously worked at their chosen occupation. Of 4 civil engineers, 2 had followed engineering. Of 7 musicians, 4 had had music jobs, while none of the 5 newspaper men had had newspaper work. Only 29 of 45 teachers, or nearly two-thirds, had followed teaching. There was little relation between degree and other jobs.

Thirty-four occupations were represented by the applicants. Of the applicants 21 had followed clerical work as the other job, 13 social work, and 29 teaching.

Women. Table 62 shows that 39 per cent of the applicants had already worked in their chosen occupation.

Of sixteen actresses none had followed this line of work. Of 25 social workers, 13 had taken other jobs, and 18 of the teachers recorded had been in other jobs. There was little relation between degree, occupation, and jobs.

Degree, Occupation, and Job Placed In

Men. The cross tabulation of degree, occupation, and type of job placed in, showed that of 66 applicants placed, 49 were placed in social service, and also that there was no close relation between

Table 62

NEW YORK EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, PROFESSIONAL APPLICANTS (WOMEN)
CROSS TABULATION OF DEGREE, OCCUPATION, AND OTHER JOBS

Occupation and Degree	Other Jobs										
	Social Workers	Teachers	Semiskilled	Clerks	Nurses	Stenographers	Musicians	Policewomen	Unskilled	Journalism	Total
Actresses A.B.	1	4	5	1	2	2			1		16
B.S.	2										2
M.S., B.S.	1										1
Librarians A.B., B.S.			1								1
Chemists (Bact.) B.S.			1								1
A.B.			1								1
Musicians A.B.	1	1					1				3
Night Club Workers A.B.										1	1
Playground B.S., M.A.	1										1
B.S.	1										1
Professional M.A.	1		1								2
Recreation Workers A.B.	2	3									5
Ph.B.	1										1
B.Ped.				1							1
Social Workers B.S.	6					1					7
A.B.(M.A.)	6	3	5			2		1			17
B.S.,M.A.	1										1
Teachers B.S.	2	3	1								6
A.B.		17	9	1	1	3	1				32
Grand Total	26	31	24	3	3	8	2	1	1	1	100

degree, occupation followed, and work placed in. Only 3 applicants placed had had a social service major, but 26 occupations were represented by those placed.

Women. The cross tabulation of degree, occupation, and type of work placed in, showed that of 39 applicants placed, 28 were placed in social service with 13 of these reporting social service as their work, while 7 were placed as clerks. There was little relation between degree and work placed in, or between placement and the 14 occupations represented.

Relation of Work Applied for to Type of Job Placed In

Men. Of 66 men applying for certain jobs, 21 were given the jobs they applied for; 4 out of 25 were placed as clerks; 14 out of 45 were placed in social service; 3 out of 6 were placed in teaching. None of the 8 asking for unskilled work were placed in it.

Women. Of 41 women who applied for certain jobs, 13 were given the work they applied for; 15 applied for social service and 27 were given this work; 2 applied for clerical work, and 6 were given clerical work; 7 applied for teaching, but none were placed in teaching.

Relation of Jobs Placed in to Other Jobs

Men. The cross tabulation of types of work men were placed in and other jobs which they had engaged in showed that out of 65 men placed, 45 were placed in social work, and that 7 of these had previously worked in this field. There were 12 men placed in the type of work previously done.

The applicants were placed in twelve occupations, and of the 65 placed, 15 had worked as clerks; 7 at semiskilled work; 7 at social work; and 23 at teaching.

Women. Out of 42 applicants, 29 were placed in social work, 15 of these having been in this field before. In all, 16 of the 42 had worked before at the same occupation in which they were placed. Twenty-seven applicants had had previous experience in teaching or in social work.

Relation of Work Asked for to Other Jobs

Men. Of 103 applicants for work, 25 had had previous experience in the work asked for. Out of 27 applying for social work, 6 had had previous experience in it; 9 out of 39 asking for clerical work had had experience at this work before; only 6 out of 19 applying for semiskilled labor had been employed at some sort of semiskilled work before. Of 29 applying for teaching 2 had taught before.

Women. The cross tabulation of jobs asked for and other jobs held showed that 26 women applicants out of 105 had been previously employed in the same type of work. Out of 41 applying for social work 14 had had experience in this line. There were 2 teachers out of 11 who had taught before; while only 3 of 25 persons applying for clerical work were experienced in it.

Color of Applicants

Various employment offices have stated that they found that the color or shade of applicants decidedly affects placement, since many employers indicate the color or shade of worker desired. The New York Employment Office in Harlem, the New York Urban League (a private employment office), and Hampton Institute have found that this tendency of employers does not affect Negro men, but does affect the women. In some instances the application cards of those registering for employment indicate the color of the applicant.

Below will be found the color or shade of 116 male applicants registered at the Harlem Employment Office.

Color	Number	Per Cent
Very Light	1	.86
Light	28	24.13
Light Brown	28	24.13
Brown	25	21.55
Dark Brown	30	25.86
Dark	4	3.44
Total	116	

It will be observed that neither extreme of color is represented to any

great extent among the applicants, and that 70.67 per cent are brown, or lighter than brown. Data as to the color of male applicants who are placed would be of greater significance, but such records are not available.

The shades of color of 119 Negro women college graduates who applied at the Harlem office were:

Shade	Number	Per Cent
Very Light	5	4.20
Light	26	21.84
Very Light Brown	1	.84
Light Brown	29	24.36
Brown	11	9.24
Medium Brown	32	26.88
Dark Brown	11	9.24
Dark	2	1.68
Very Dark	1	.84
Very Black	1	.84
Total	119	

Thus it is seen that, in the Harlem office, 10 shades of color are recorded for women applicants. This differentiation, undoubtedly, is important, since applicants at the office are referred to all sorts of jobs. For maids certain shades are requested; singers, entertainers, and chorus girls must be of a shade to suit the type of show, or to meet specified demands; and others must meet different artistic or commercial requirements in this respect.

Sixty per cent of the applicants were brown, or lighter than brown. According to the statements of women examiners in the women's divisions of the Harlem office, the "real dark girl" rarely applies for work because of an "inferiority complex." She feels she is not wanted and cannot get a worth-while job, regardless of training, so she seeks a low-paying, undesirable place.

Personality Rating of Applicants

The personality ratings of 128 male applicants as judged by examiners were as follows:

* * * * *

Personality	Number	Per Cent
Excellent	13	10.1
Very Good	9	7.0
Good	85	66.4
Intelligent	6	4.6
Fair	12	9.3
Neat	2	1.5
Body Odor	1	.8
Total	128	

Insofar as subjective judgments of personality are reliable, and although the categories are not very specific, it is clear that the applicants did not lack in personality, since 88.1 per cent of those applying had good or better than good personalities.

The personality ratings of 117 female applicants were as follows:

Personality	Number	Per Cent
Excellent	15	12.8
Very Good	23	19.6
Good	45	38.4
Intelligent	27	23.0
Alert	2	1.7
Very neat	1	.8
Fair	1	.8
Rather Peculiar	2	1.7
Poor	1	.8
Total	117	

The women examiners who rated these women judged them in most cases to have good or better than average personalities.

Summary

1. The general Negro labor supply as measured by applications in the Harlem office of the New York State Employment Service increased 174 per cent in 1935 over that of 1930, and the demand as measured by the number of calls for help increased 4 per cent in 1935 over that of 1930. But the ratio of demand to supply in 1935 showed a 42 per cent decrease under that of 1930. The placement of Negro labor decreased 16 per cent in 1933 under that of 1930, while the ratio of placement to applicants in 1935 was 43 per cent under

that of 1930.

2. The data on the college graduates registered at the Harlem Office showed that of the active male applicants 73.3 per cent held academic or scientific degrees. Of these 49.4 per cent held A.B. degrees, and 26.7 professional. Of the latter, 8 per cent were pharmaceutical and 8 per cent dental. Of the women 90 per cent held A.B., B.S., and M.A. degrees, with 70 per cent of these A.B.'s.

3. In terms of training, previous experience, type of work applied for, and placement, an analysis of the data gave the following: Of the jobs for which the men applied 34.5 per cent would require college training, while 31.9 would require vocational training on the high-school level. Of the jobs for which the women applied 49.6 would require college training, and 49.6 vocational training on the high-school level.

Since the period for which data were available falls during the depression, a high per cent of placements were in relief work. The placement for men was 69 per cent of the applicants; for women 38 per cent. Of the placements for men 74 per cent were in work requiring college training, and for women 62 per cent.

The record of previous experience indicated that 32.9 per cent of the men and 29 per cent of the women had taught. Of the other jobs previously filled by the men, 61 per cent would require a college education, and 29 per cent at least secondary-level vocational training, while for the women the equivalent per cents were 61 and 34 respectively. The combined total of jobs included in work asked for, jobs placed in, and other work done was 692: 16.47 per cent of these were vocational; 23.2 per cent clerical or business in nature; 29.62 per cent social or social service; 19.79 educational; and 10.98 per cent were professional other than educational.

Among these applicants there was not a close relation of degree to chosen occupation and work asked for, nor of degree to chosen occupation and previous experience, nor of degree to chosen occupation and work placed in. On the basis of these figures there is less than a fifty-fifty chance that placement will be in the work applied for, or that previous experience will have been that of the work placed in. Social service, teaching, and clerical work show the highest relation of training to experience, chosen occupation, work sought, and work placed in.

Implications

Although the data surveyed cover a period of unusual economic stress, it seems evident that the New York labor market is oversaturated with Negro labor, and that unemployed college graduates should not flock to the city for work. Professional and academic training apparently does not assure placement in work for which this training presumably leads. Those well trained in vocations at the secondary level or better apparently have the best chance of employment. These occupational data again stress the need for careful vocational and educational guidance for students into lines where there is the most opportunity, and an adequate knowledge of the actual facts by those who are responsible for the shaping of the collegiate programs of instruction to meet the prevalent and future economic and social conditions. On the basis of occupational placement, vocational content seems to be of vital importance in such programs.

Chapter V

TRENDS IN COLLEGE PLACEMENT BUREAUS FOR GRADUATES

In the two decades since the World War a number of college bureaus have been established to serve the many Negro college graduates who have sought placement in one field of activity or another.

Since one of the purposes of this study was to reveal trends in the employment of Negro college graduates by a survey of data found in one or more typical placement bureaus, and thus to reach certain conclusions in regard to the Negro collegiate program, those at Fisk University in Nashville, Tennessee, and at Howard University in Washington, D.C. were selected. Howard and Fisk serve students from all over the nation and are, therefore, typical of general conditions among collegiate Negroes. A study of the application files of the placement bureaus, and also of the catalogues of these two institutions, shows that their graduates are located in every state of the Union. Surveys were also conducted at Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Missouri, and Wiley College, Marshall, Texas, but the data obtained at these institutions were negligible.

Supply of, and Demand for, Graduates

The number of applicants and notices for positions received by the placement bureaus for certain years are indices of both supply and demand for graduates. Table 63 compares the number of Fisk applicants and notices of positions, for three two-year periods beginning with 1929:

During the six years from 1929 to 1934 there was an average per two-year period of twelve less jobs than applicants. The ratio of jobs to applications was 90 per cent, or nine chances in ten of placement. Between 1929 and the end of 1934 there was a 10 per cent drop in both applications and calls.

Another index of demand is available in the number of notices for various kinds of teachers received annually by the Howard University Placement Bureau from 1920 to 1934. Table 64 shows that the number of teachers wanted increased from fifteen in 1920, when the bureau opened, to eighty-three in 1927, and then fell off sharply after 1930 to eight in 1933, when the bureau closed because of inability to place teachers.

The annual per cent of the total number of notices increased from 2 per cent in 1920 to 11 in 1927 and decreased to 1 per cent in 1933. The average number of notices per year for this period was forty-nine, indicating that a total of only forty-nine teachers could be placed annually

Table 63

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS AND NOTICES OF POSITIONS RECEIVED BY FISK UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT BUREAU, 1929 TO 1934

Two-Year Periods	Number of Applicants	Number of Calls	Per Cent of Applicants	Per Cent of Calls	Ratio of Calls to Applicants
1929-1930	151	115	37.2	31.1	76
1931-1932	142	173	35.0	46.9	122
1933-1934	111	80	27.4	21.6	72
Total	404	368	99.6	99.7	90
Average per Period	134	122			

by this large bureau. The standard deviation for the annual number of notices was 25, indicating that the demand for Negro teachers as measured by this bureau fluctuates one-half of the average annual demand; thus the coefficient of variability is .50.

Table 64

VOLUME OF NOTICES FOR TEACHERS RECEIVED BY HOWARD UNIVERSITY TEACHER-PLACEMENT BUREAU

Year	Number	Per Cent
1920	15	2.0
1921	42	3.7
1922	55	7.5
1923	69	9.4
1924	82	11.2
1925	72	9.8
1926	65	8.8
1927	83	11.3
1928	69	9.4
1929	56	7.6
1930	50	6.8
1931	37	5.0
1932	28	3.8
1933	8	1.0
1934	1	.1
Total	732	

Supply of, and Demand for, Teachers

The supply and demand for Negro teachers profoundly affects the college program since the chief occupation of Negro college graduates is teaching. While no extended study has been made of this supply and demand, a recent nation-wide study of the education of Negro teachers gives some data on the subject.

Table 65 shows the demand for, and supply of, teachers in elementary schools for Negroes in the United States.[1]

The demand table shows that of 9,659 teachers answering a questionnaire, 1,152, or 12 per cent, were occupying new positions since they had not been employed during the year preceding the study. According to this same study there is a yearly demand for about 3,000 new Negro elementary teachers in order to maintain the schools.[2]

Another study, however, estimated that 6,310 new Negro teachers are needed annually, basing this figure on the requirements for all the Negro schools as now organized. Consequently, the estimate of 3,000 new elementary teachers yearly appears too small, since there is a larger percentage of elementary teachers than of high-school teachers.[3]

On the basis of Table 66 the number of teachers needed annually is 13 per cent of the number of teachers certified. Thus the demand for new Negro teachers is 1 to every 7.7 of the old teachers. In the study[4] of Caliver, however, the demand is 1 new teacher to every 8 old teachers. The closeness of these figures on demand for new teachers indicate their reliability. Table 66 also shows that the annual number of teachers needed is 44 per cent of those in training; that is, there is an excess of 7,772 teachers being trained for the available jobs.

An important feature of this supply and demand is the ratio of mobility--the ratio of "new" teachers to the total number employed. For the Southern states this is shown in Table 65 as 1-8.38. Obviously the larger the ratio of mobility, the greater will be the demand for new teachers. In Georgia the ratio is 1 to 6.40, in the District of Columbia it is 1 to 35; therefore, more teachers will be needed per annum in Georgia than in the District of Columbia.[5]

Caliver also estimates that there is a yearly demand for 3,000 elementary teachers new to the professions. How are

1. Ambrose Caliver, "Education of Negro Teachers," National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. IV, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin No. 10 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).
2. Ibid.
3. Fred McCuistion, Higher Education of Negroes (Nashville: Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools), 1933.
4. Caliver, op. cit.
5. Ibid., p. 25.

Table 65

DEMAND FOR, AND SUPPLY OF, TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES

U.S. Total number of elementary teachers involved	Total number of "new" elementary teachers	Ratio of Mobility Ratio of new teachers to total	Reasons for Demand for New Teachers									
			Predecessor died	Predecessor retired	Predecessor entered college	Predecessor married	Predecessor left to teach in same state	Predecessor left to teach in another state	Predecessor in another profession	Predecessor on leave Illness, etc.	Newly created position	Other reasons
Number 9,659	1,152	1-8.38	23	74	35	92	450	48	89	66	162	113
Per Cent			2.0	6.4	3.0	8.0	39.0	4.2	7.7	5.7	14.0	9.8

Table 66

SHOWING FOR THE SOUTHERN STATES: NUMBER OF TEACHERS CERTIFIED NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS; NUMBER OF TEACHERS NEEDED ANNUALLY; AND THE NUMBER IN TRAINING[6]

Southern States	Teachers Certified	Elementary Teachers	Teachers Needed	Teachers in Training
Total	47,426	46,047	6,310	14,072

these distributed? In the national survey of the Education of Teachers in Negro Schools[7] are found the mobility ratios for the various states. Since these ratios affect the demand for new teachers in any state in any year, they should be taken into consideration in estimating the annual need for teachers.

One method of calculating the number of new teachers needed each year in each state is to determine the per cent of elementary teachers in each of the states. These per cents can be calculated from the figures given by McCuistion.[8] Multiplying the per cents of the number of elementary teachers by the mobility ratio for that state, gives the state per cent of new teachers. Finally these per cents are converted into numbers by multiplying each per cent by 3,000, the total number of new teachers needed each year. The estimated number for each of the states is given below:

State	New elementary Teachers needed each year
Alabama	263
Arkansas	183
District of Columbia	11
Florida	74
Georgia	474
Kentucky	57
Louisiana	131
Maryland	85
Mississippi	308
Missouri	28

6. Based on Ibid.
7. Ibid.
8. McCuistion, op. cit.

State	New elementary Teachers needed each year
North Carolina	502
Oklahoma	97
South Carolina	137
Tennessee	171
Texas	257
Virginia	200
West Virginia	17

Kinds of Teachers Required for Elementary and Secondary School Levels: Fisk, Howard, and Lincoln Employment Bureaus

Grade School--On this level forty-three requests were received of which 46 per cent were "general," or for teachers who could teach all the grades.

High School--Notices sent for teachers on the high-school level have been tabulated by subject or subject combination. Where teachers were wanted to teach three or more subjects of a varied nature, the requests have been tabulated under the category "general."

Table 67 gives the results of this tabulation as follows:

Table 67

RANK BY SUBJECT OF THE NUMBER OF REQUESTS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS RECEIVED BY HOWARD, FISK, AND LINCOLN UNIVERSITIES

Subject	Number	Per Cent
General	131	16.1
Home Economics	87	10.7
Music	70	8.6
Science	59	7.2
English	51	6.3
Mathematics	41	5.0
Principal	34	4.2
Physical Education	25	3.0
History and English	20	2.4
Commercial	18	2.2
Manual Training	16	1.9
French and Latin	15	1.8
French	15	1.8
History	12	1.4
Mathematics and Science	12	1.4
English and French	10	1.2
Education	10	1.2
Latin and English	9	1.1
Latin and Mathematics	9	1.1
Languages	8	.9
Library Science	8	.9
Art	8	.9
English and Music	7	.8
Social Science	7	.8
Chemistry and Physics	6	.7
Modern Languages	6	.7
Home Economics and Music	6	.7
Biology	5	.6
Physics	5	.6
English and Mathematics	5	.6
Music and French	6	.6
Others	89	11.0
Total Requests	809	

This tabulation shows that, aside from manual training, home economics, commercial subjects, and library science, the Negro high school of the South is still teaching the classics, modern languages, science, and mathematics. In general it may be said that the most frequent requests were for all-around teachers, home economics, music, science, English, and mathematics.

The notices for high-school teachers have been tabulated (Table 68) on the basis of subject combinations.

For Howard and Fisk the per cents of requests for high-school teachers of various single subjects and combinations have been ranked in order. The ranks for subjects and combinations whose per cent are greater than one per cent follow:

Rank	Howard	Fisk
1	General Teacher	Fine Arts
2	Practical Arts	Practical Arts
3	Science	Science
4	Languages	English
5	Mathematics	General Teacher
6	Fine Arts	Practical & Fine Arts
7	English	Professional Subjects
8	Professional Subject	Social Science
9	English & Social Science	Languages
10	Physical Education & Health	Physical Education & Health
11	Commercial Subjects	English & Languages
12	Social Science	Library Science

Table 68

REQUESTS RECEIVED BY HOWARD, FISK, AND LINCOLN UNIVERSITIES FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS OF VARIOUS SUBJECT-MATTER COMBINATIONS

Subject Combinations	Number			Per Cent of Total		
	Howard	Fisk	Lincoln	Howard	Fisk	Lincoln
Math.--Science	10	1	1	1.7	.4	7.1
Math.--English	3	3	1	.5	1.3	7.1
Math.--Social Science		4			1.7	
Math.--Languages	8	4		1.3	1.7	
English--Language	13	6		2.2	2.6	
English--Science	4	1		.6	.4	
English--Fine Arts	6	1		1.0	.4	
English--Soc. Science	18	4		3.1	1.7	
English	30	21		5.1	9.3	
Science	59	24	1	10.1	10.6	7.1
Practical Arts	80	31	1	13.7	13.7	7.1
Mathematics	41			7.0		
Social Science	14	10		2.4	4.4	
Commercial Subjects	15	2	2	2.5	.8	14.2
Physical Ed. & Health	18	7		3.1	3.1	
Languages	46	9		7.9	3.9	
Lang.--Science	3	1		.5	.4	
Lang.--Fine Arts	7	3		1.2	1.3	
Fine Arts	36	42		6.2	18.6	
Practical & Fine Arts	3	13	1	.5	5.7	7.1
Prof. Subjects	28	13	3	4.8	5.7	21.4
General	114	13	4	19.6	5.7	28.5
Library Science	3	5		.5	2.2	
Others	21	7		1.3	.8	
Total	580	225	14			

Rank	Howard	Fisk
13	English and Languages	Mathematics & Social Science
14	Mathematics & Science	Mathematics & Languages
15	Mathematics & Languages	English and Social Science
16	Languages & Fine Arts	Mathematics & English
17	English and Fine Arts	Languages & Fine Arts

When the Howard and Fisk lists of requests for teachers are compared, it is found that there are thirteen subjects, or combinations that are common to the two lists. The rank difference method of correlation between the lists is .783.

To get the per cent of requests for each of the subjects, the frequencies of each subject as found in the two lists were added, and divided by the total of the Howard and Fisk requests, or 805. Below are given the subjects and their per cent values:

Rank		Subject or Combination Per Cent
1	General	14.5
2	Practical Arts	13.8
3	Science	10.0
4	Fine Arts	9.6
5	Languages	8.0
6	English	6.4
7	Professional subjects	5.0

Rank	Subject or Combination	Per Cent
8	Physical Education & Health	3.1
9	Social Science	3.0
10	English & Social Science	2.7
11	English & Languages	2.3
12	Mathematics and Languages	1.5
13	Languages & Fine Arts	1.2

The Howard list indicates that the most frequent requests were for such combinations as: (1) English and social science; (2) physical education and health; (3) English and languages; (4) mathematics and science; and (5) mathematics and languages.

Some of these combinations are unrelated and indicate a trend which is confirmed by another study[9] which gives the percentage distribution of major and minor teaching fields of 949 Negro high-school teachers in 1930 and 1931 (Table 69).

"The most striking feature in this table," Caliver points out, "is the large number of teaching combinations of unrelated subject field, for example, agriculture and English, modern languages and physical sciences."[10]

In the same study, the per cents of high-school teachers found in each of several minor teaching fields were:

1.	Social Science	24
2.	Science	16
3.	English	14
4.	Mathematics	12
5.	Languages	11
6.	Education	5
7.	Physical Education	4
8.	Music	3
9.	Home Economics	1
10.	Trades	1
11.	Agriculture	8

It should be noted that the six ranking subjects in this list are the same as the six ranking subjects in the scale (already given) based upon the judgment

Table 69

PER CENT FREQUENCIES OF CERTAIN MAJOR-MINOR COMBINATIONS FOR 949 NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Major Teaching Field	Minor Teaching Fields and Per Cent of Total				
	1	2	3	4	5
Agriculture	Soc. Sci. 33	Eng. 25	Biol. 16		
Art	Eng. 40	Soc. Sci. 20	Math. 10	Phys. Sci. 10	Music 10
Biology	Phys. Ed. 28	Soc. Sci. 20	Math. 15		
Business	Math. 42	Eng. 14	Lang. 14	Phys. Ed. 14	Soc.Sci.14
Education	Biol. 14	Eng. 14	Soc. Sci. 14	Math. 14	
English	Soc. Sci. 39	Math. 18	M. Lang. 10		
Classic Lang.	Eng. 29	Soc. Sci. 22	M. Lang. 17		
Mod. Lang.	Eng. 34	Soc. Sci. 21	C. Lang. 12	Phys. Sci. 7	
Phys. Ed.	Soc. Sci. 41	Math. 11	Home Ec. 11	Biol. 11	
Home Ec.	Eng. 33	Ed. 16	Music 16	Soc. Sci. 16	Trades 16
Phys. Sci.	Biol. 39	Math. 27	Soc. Sci. 13		
Mathematics	Soc. Sci. 20	Phys. Sci. 18	Eng. 14		
Music	Ed. 20	Eng. 20	C. Lang. 20	M. Lang. 20	Math. 20
Soc. Sci.	Eng. 42	Biol. 11	Home Ec. 8		
Trades	Phys. Ed. 100				

9. Caliver, op. cit., p. 39.
10. Ibid.

and majors of 10,375 Negro college graduates. Since the percentages of the 949 Negro high-school teachers who teach certain major-minor combinations or vice versa, are also given, by averaging these per cents, we are able to state the chances that a Negro high-school teacher will have of teaching such a combination (Table 70).

Table 70

CHANCES IN ONE HUNDRED THAT A NEGRO HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHER WILL TEACH A CERTAIN MAJOR-MINOR COMBINATION

1. Social Science and Others	52
2. Physical Science and Trades	50
3. English and Social Science	40
4. Biology and Physical Science	34
5. Mathematics and Physical Science	23
6. Physical Education and Social Science	23
7. English and Modern Languages	22
8. English and Art	20
9. Agriculture and Social Science	20
10. English and Classic Languages	18
11. Home Economics and English	17
12. English and Mathematics	16

The study which Caliver made of the catalogues of colleges for the training of Negro teachers shows that the principles of specialization are being followed in outline curricula for teachers. After showing that teaching combinations and major-minor are not closely related, the author says: "This kind of combination is rightfully ignored by institutions for the preparation of teachers; to attempt to prepare teachers adequately in such unrelated fields is, first of all frequently to attempt the impossible, and next, to perpetuate ineffective school organizations."[11]

On the other hand, a study of the requests for teachers; the subjects and combinations (frequently unrelated major and minor fields) which they have to teach; the fact that the largest number of requests are for general teachers; the rapidly changing social pattern which makes occupational, cultural, and social requirements for the individual uncertain; and the inability of the Southern states to pay for a dual system of education,[12] all point to a general curriculum for the training of high-school and college teachers for Negroes.

What, in the light of this material, would such a curriculum contain? To answer this question the following lists of subjects were used: (1) the requests for teachers; (2) the per cent of teachers found in certain fields of concentration; (3) the major subjects taken by 5,000 college graduates; (4) the opinions of 5,000 college graduates as to the most useful college subject for life purposes; and (5) the teaching combinations of 949 high-school teachers.

These sources gave the following sum of ranks for the subjects found in each list:

Rank	Subject	Sum of Ranks
1	Science	12
2	English	22
3	Mathematics	29
4	Languages	39
5.5	Commerce	41
5.5	Fine Arts	41
7.5	Social Science	43
7.5	Education	43
9	Practical Arts	

No doubt in an ideal curriculum for teachers or college students some fields of learning would be higher in the list, but the ranking is reliable insofar as the basic criteria of selection are adequate and dependable.

Kinds and Numbers of Requests for College Teachers Sent to the Placement Bureaus of Howard and Fisk

The Howard bureau received sixty-seven notices for college teachers between 1920 and 1932. The largest number of requests were for language, critic, English, and science teachers. Fisk received twenty-six requests for college teachers

11. Caliver, op. cit., p. 39.
12. "The Ability and Effort of the States to Pay for Education," Journal of Educational Research, 1927, pp. 88-97.

between 1929 and 1934. The largest number of notices were for science, library science, social science, and English.

Some idea of the needs for college teachers of various subjects may be obtained from a study of the distribution, by departments, of 347 college teachers[13] as given in Table 71.

Table 71

SHOWING NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF NEGRO COLLEGE TEACHERS BY DEPARTMENTS

Department	Number	Per Cent
English	46	13.25
Education	34	9.79
History	32	9.22
Home Economics	29	8.35
Chemistry	22	6.34
Mathematics	22	6.34
Biological Sciences	19	5.47
Languages, Modern	19	5.47
Agriculture	17	4.87
Trades	17	4.89
Physical Education	13	3.74
Music	12	3.45
Commerce	11	3.17
Sociology	8	2.30
Physics	7	2.01
Languages, Classical	7	2.01
Economics	6	1.72
Philosophy, Ethics	6	1.72
Others	20	5.73
Total	347	

The largest number of teachers are found in English, science, social science, education, practical arts, languages, and mathematics.

Relation of Majors and Previous Experience

In the five years from 1929 to 1934 there were two hundred and sixty-four graduates registered at the Fisk Placement Bureau who had had previous experience along certain lines. There were nineteen English majors, seven of whom had engaged in general high-school teaching, and four in library work. Of the thirty-two science majors, eight had done general high-school teaching, and five had taught science. There were twenty-three fine arts majors, seven of whom had taught fine arts. Of thirty-eight social science majors, eleven had engaged in general high-school teaching and four in social work. Of twenty-five graduates in education, eight had engaged in general high-school teaching. Slightly more than one-fifth of the group had engaged in general high-school teaching.

Relation of Majors and Occupations

There were three hundred and seventy-one majors who indicated on their application card the occupation they were most interested in. Sixteen of the thirty-four English majors wanted to enter general high-school teaching, and five wanted to teach English. There were fifty-four science majors, twenty-two of whom were interested in general high-school teaching, and fifteen in teaching science. Of nineteen mathematics majors, ten were interested in general teaching and four in mathematics. Nine of the seventeen commerce majors were attracted by business or commercial work. Twenty-two of the twenty-eight fine arts majors were interested in teaching that subject, and five in general high-school teaching. One-half of fifty-two majors in education desired to engage in general high-school teaching. There were seventy-two social science majors, fifteen of whom were interested in general teaching, thirty in social work, and ten in social science teaching.

General teaching interested one hundred and eleven, or 30 per cent, of three hundred and seventy-one majors, whereas 78, or 21 per cent, were interested in teaching their major.

Trends in City School Appointments: a Survey of St. Louis

Since teaching is the principal occupation of Negro college graduates, in order to gather further data that might indicate factors to be considered in the formulation of collegiate programs for Negroes, the writer made an analysis of the records in a typical city school employment bureau, of the applications received for teaching positions in the Negro high

13. Caliver, op. cit., p. 50.

schools. St. Louis was selected for this survey, because it is located in a border section between North and South, and presents conditions which are normal as judged by wages, conditions of work, and race prejudice.

Distribution of Applicants by Years

The four hundred and fifty-seven applicants for positions in the colored high schools of St. Louis, 1923 to 1934, were distributed by years as follows:

Year	Number	Per Cent
1923	1	.2
1924	1	.2
1925	3	.6
1926	12	2.6
1927	12	2.6
1928	25	5.4
1929	51	11.1
1930	83	18.1
1931	143	31.2
1932	50	10.9
1933	29	6.3
1934	47	10.2
Total	487	

The number of applicants increased steadily until 1931, then fell rapidly. The average number per year was 38, the standard deviation 38; and the coefficient of variability 100. Thus, it will be seen, the supply was not constant. No doubt by 1931 the depression had its effects on the appointment of high-school teachers. At that time word had gone out that St. Louis needed no more teachers, and if it did, it would use some of its grade teachers, or teachers who were unemployed and on relief.

The number of applications made to the Fisk and Howard placement bureaus showed a similar falling off after 1931.

Distribution of Appointees by Years

The distribution of the number of teachers appointed by years was as follows:

Year	Number	Per Cent
1925	1	2.8
1926	1	2.8
1927	3	8.5
1928	8	22.7
1929	11	31.2
1930	6	17.0
1931	1	2.8
1932	-	0.0
1933	2	5.6
1934	1	2.8
Total	34	

The relation of high-school teachers to the demand for such teachers is indicated by the ratio of the average number of teachers appointed to the average number applying. The average number appointed per year was 3.8, and the average number applying was 38. Hence the ratio of demand to supply was .1, or one chance in ten.

Majors of Applicants

The major subjects of two hundred and ninety-two applicants showed the following distribution:

Major Subject	Number	Per Cent
Professional Subjects	90	30.8
Science	43	14.7
English	42	14.3
Social Science	40	13.6
Languages	19	6.5
Practical Arts	17	5.8
Mathematics	17	5.8
Fine Arts	12	4.1
Commercial Subjects	10	3.4
Physical Education & Social Studies	2	.6
Total	292	

Professional subjects have a higher frequency than any other major. As education is the principal subject in this category, it is clear that these students followed the trend of the time by taking education to qualify them for teaching; moreover, education is generally required of all applicants who expect to meet the certification requirements of cities and states.

Minors of Applicants

The frequencies of the minors of two hundred and seventy-six applicants were as follows:

Minor Subject	Number	Per Cent
Professional Subjects	69	24.2
Social Science	55	19.9
English	47	17.0
Science	27	9.7
Mathematics	25	9.0
Languages	21	7.6
Practical Arts	13	4.7
Physical Education	7	2.5
Commercial Subjects	5	1.8
Fine Arts	5	1.8
English and Science	2	.7
Languages and Social Science	1	.3
Physical Education and Social Science	1	.3
Total	276	

The correlation between the ranks of the common major and minor subjects of applicants was .867.

Majors and Minors of Appointees

The majors of twenty-six teachers appointed were:

Major	Number	Per Cent
Professional Subjects	9	34.2
English	3	11.4
Home Economics	3	11.4
Latin	2	7.6
Art	2	7.6
French	2	7.6
Mathematics	2	7.6
Biology	1	3.8
Physical Education	1	3.8
Social Science	1	3.8
Total	26	

The minors of those appointed were:

Minor	Number	Per Cent
Professional Subjects	9	36
Social Science	8	32
German	1	4
French	1	4
English	1	4
Mathematics	1	4
Art	1	4
General Science	1	4
Latin	1	4
Physical Education	1	4
Total	25	

Because of the small number of teachers appointed, it is unsafe to draw any conclusions with reference to the demand for particular minors.

Frequency of Subjects and Combinations Applied For

The subjects or combinations applied for by those desiring to teach had the following frequencies:

Subject	Number	Per Cent
English and Social Science	54	14.6
Practical Arts	34	8.6
Science	32	8.6
English and Languages	29	7.8
Social Science	29	7.8
Professional Subjects	25	6.7
Mathematics and Science	19	5.1
Fine Arts	17	4.6
Science and Social Science	16	4.3
Physical Education and Health	14	3.7
English	13	3.5
Languages	13	3.5
Commercial Subjects	9	2.4
Languages and Social Science	8	2.1
Mathematics and Languages	7	1.8
Commerce and Social Science	7	1.8
English and Science	6	1.6
English and Fine Arts	6	1.6
Mathematics and Social Science	5	1.3
English and Professional Subjects	4	1.0
Others	24	6.5
Total	364	

It is evident from the frequency of certain basic subject combinations that teachers seeking positions in the St. Louis secondary schools for Negroes follow the pattern of subjects generally taught in high school. There was a correlation of .830 between the subjects applied for by these applicants and the subject requests filed in the Howard and Fisk placement bureaus.

A survey of the subjects applied for by thirty-one appointees showed that 22 per cent applied for social science and

English; 16 per cent for practical arts; 12 per cent for fine arts; and 6 per cent for languages.

Major-Minor Combinations of Applicants

The frequencies of certain major-minor combinations of applicants for positions were as follows:

Major-Minor	Number	Per Cent
Professional Subjects and Social Science	21	8.7
Professional Subjects and English	18	7.5
English and Social Science	17	7.1
English and Professional Subjects	15	6.2
Social Science and English	13	5.4
Science and Science	13	5.4
Professional Subjects and Science	10	4.1
Science and Mathematics	10	4.1
Science and Professional Subjects	9	3.7
Professional Subjects and Practical Arts	7	2.9
Mathematics and Professional Subjects	6	2.5
Professional Subjects and Languages	6	2.5
Practical Arts and Professional Subjects	6	2.5
Others	88	37.0
Total	239	

The ranking combinations are those with professional subject majors, such as education and psychology. The second largest major-minor combination was English.

Adding the percentages of each subject as a major and then as a minor gives the chances that a subject would have of appearing as a major, a minor, or as an average per cent of the two:

Subjects	Appearing as	Per Cent of Cases
Professional	major	32.9
	minor	23.3
	average	28.0
English	major	16.5
	minor	18.1
	average	17.3
Social Science	major	11.4
	minor	21.0
	average	16.2
Science	major	15.2
	minor	11.9
	average	13.5
Mathematics	major	6.5
	minor	10.1
	average	8.3
Languages	major	6.8
	minor	7.3
	average	7.0
Practical Arts	major	5.3
	minor	4.5
	average	4.9
Fine Arts	major	3.6
	minor	2.0
	average	2.8
Commerce	major	3.6
	minor	1.6
	average	2.6

This tabulation shows that professional subjects were the majors of nearly 33 per cent of two hundred and thirty-nine of the applicants, and minor in 23 per cent. The average of these two per cents gives 28 per cent of all majors or minors reported by applicants as professional subjects.

Major-Minor Combinations of Appointees

A study of the records of twenty-five teachers appointed to high-school positions showed that 16 per cent of them had professional subjects as a major and social science as a minor; 12 per cent had home economics as a major and professional subjects as a minor; and 8 per cent had English as a major and professional subjects as a minor.

Summary

1. From 1929 to 1934 inclusive the demand for college graduates registered at the Fisk University Placement Bureau was 8 per cent less than the supply of graduate applicants, but during this interval both the demand and supply decreased 10 per cent. The demand for Negro college graduates as measured by notices of openings for teachers received by the Howard

University Placement Bureau increased from 2 per cent of 732 notices in 1920 to 11 per cent in 1927, and decreased in 1933 to 1 per cent of the thirteen-year total of 732. The average annual demand for this period was 49; the standard deviation for the demand 25; the coefficient of variability 50; and the skewness -.6.

2. Data indicate that approximately 6,300 openings occur annually for teachers in the Negro schools, and that in the elementary schools alone there is a yearly demand for 3,000 new teachers. The annual number of teachers needed, however, is 44 per cent of those in training. The ratio of mobility--the ratio of new teachers to the number of teachers employed--is 1 to 8.

3. The type of teaching these teachers are expected to do, in terms of subjects and subject-combinations, is indicated by the specific requests received by the various college placement bureaus. On the elementary level the most frequent calls (46 per cent) were for "general teachers." On the secondary level the percentage of the requests were: general (three or more unrelated subjects) 16.1; practical arts 10.7; music 8.6; science 7.2; English 6.3; mathematics 5.0; physical education 3.0; commerce 2.2 and French 1.8. The most frequent combinations requested, ranked in order, were: English and social science; physical education and health; English and languages; mathematics and science; mathematics and languages. The largest number of requests on the college level were for teachers of science, social science, and English; these subjects agree rather closely--with the addition of education--with the relative number of college teachers in the various fields. Of the graduate applicants for positions 30 per cent were interested in general teaching, and 21 per cent in teaching their major.

4. In terms of the records of application for teaching positions in the Negro high schools of St. Louis, the teaching opportunities, training and teaching interests of applicants gave the following: applications for positions increased to a peak of 143 in 1931, then fell off rapidly--a decline evidently owing to statements that there were no more teachers needed. The average number of applications yearly was 38, but the yearly number of applications varied considerably. The average number of applicants appointed was 3.8, while the ratio of demand to supply was .1.

Of the applicants 30 per cent had majored in professional subjects, 15 per cent in science, 14 per cent in English, and 13 per cent in social science. The ranking minors were professional subjects, social science, English, and science. There was a correlation of .867 between the majors and minors of applicants, indicating a fairly stable and set pattern in training. The ranking major-minor combinations were professional subjects and English. The most frequent subjects and combinations of those applying were: English and social science, practical arts, science, and English and languages. There was a correlation of .830 between the subjects applied for and the subject requests filed in the Fisk and Howard bureaus, again pointing to the established pattern and the preparation of students to meet the current requirements.

The ranking majors of those appointed to vacancies were professional subjects, English, and home economics, and the subjects for which they applied were social science, English, practical arts, and fine arts. Their major-minor subjects were: professional subjects and social science, home economics and professional subjects, and English and professional subjects.

Implications

Since the demand for Negro teachers is far outstripped by the supply, even on the elementary and secondary level where that demand is greatest, it seems evident that too many teachers are being trained. In terms of the subject matter which teachers are called upon to teach, their training should be general and diversified, especially for the elementary and secondary fields. These schools are apparently making demands for teaching in fairly unrelated fields, which the teacher, in view of the competition, must try to meet regardless of the educational desirability of such practices. On the basis of the records of applicants for appointments in a typical city Negro high-school system, too many prospective secondary teachers are majoring in professional subjects, although education, generally taken for certification

purposes, is in this group.

In terms of college programs for secondary teacher-training, as the schools are now constituted, the general curriculum would consist of science, English, mathematics, languages, commerce and economics, fine arts, social science, education, and practical arts--a fairly wide range of subject matter.

It also seems evident from the nature of the requests for teachers that the high-school program is following the traditional pattern, and is not being adapted to meet the changing social pattern. This situation makes it difficult for the college to shape its program along similar lines, since it is preparing teachers to meet specific requirements. There should consequently be greater co-ordination between Negro secondary schools and colleges in defining the aims of education and in meeting them, and a re-examination of their curricula to these ends, and in terms of the particular needs of the race group.

Chapter VI

THE OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT OF NEGRO COLLEGE CURRICULA

It is indeed difficult to determine just what has been the method by which the American college has established the objectives and content of its curricula. No doubt, in part, the college program has been taken from that of the European college and university, and molded and adapted through the judgment and influence of college leaders. Finally there seems to have been no set method of isolating and establishing the objectives and content of the program other than trial and error.

Among the questions which arose during the course of this investigation were:

1. What are the outstanding factors in the formulating of a college program?
2. How may these factors be evaluated?
3. What provision is made for certain objectives in Negro colleges?
4. What has been, and is, the content of the Negro college curriculum?
5. What is the significance of the peculiar problems of Negroes in contemporary American society?

This chapter is an attempt to answer, to some extent, these questions. Many difficulties lay in the way of an exact scientific approach, and the results are not, in any sense of the word, absolute. Nevertheless, they are no doubt better than the mere judgment of educators without the basis of statistical analysis.

Evaluation of Certain Factors in the Formulation of a College Program

Method of Evaluation

The factors considered were obtained by reviewing the historical and quantitative data on the Negro college found in this thesis. Later they were checked against the literature of higher education and finally they were submitted, by means of a questionnaire, to thirty-five competent judges who were asked to give their opinions as to the value of the factors in the formulation of a college program, and to suggest other possible factors. The judges were to rate the factors according to the following scale of judgment: if the factor was of greatest value in the opinion of the judge, it was to be rated five; if of great value, it was to be rated four; if it was of some value, it was to be rated three; little value two; and no value one.

The values for each of the factors, as given by the thirty-five judges, were summed up and converted into a composite scale score by Carver's methods.[1]

The Results of the Rating of the Forty-Two Factors by the Judges

Factors	Value
1. Subjects to be taught as indicated in requests for teachers	98
2. The objectives of college education	96
3. The philosophy of higher education	93
4. Theories of college education held by college educators	93
5. Educational qualification required for certification of teachers	92
6. Present occupation of college graduate and most useful subject taken in college	87
7. Subjects which applicant for a position desires to teach	81
8. Major in college and work interested in	78
9. Subject which those appointed desire to teach	78

1. H. C. Carver, "Synopsis of Elementary Mathematical Statistics," Annals of Mathematical Statistics, Vol. I, 1930, p. 29.

Factors	Value
10. Major subjects taken in college by those college graduates appointed to any position	77
11. Number of unemployed persons in any given profession	74
12. Number of gainfully employed professional workers in a given state at a given time	72
13. Major and minor subject combination of college graduates appointed to any position	72
14. Number of doctors, teachers, or other professional workers in a given state at a given time (whether employed or not)	70
15. Kind of school from which requests came for teachers (as elementary, secondary, or college)	70
16. Major subject studied in college and present occupation of graduates	70
17. Relation of type of college, whether vocational or academic, to time between graduation and employment	65
18. The history of higher education	63
19. Number of persons in a given profession in proportion to the total number of persons in all professions	61
20. Type of work engaged in by college graduate and salary received at the job	59
21. Number of persons placed in a given position in a given time	55
22. Number of professional workers of any given profession in proportion to the total population	55
23. Number of help wanted in a given position in a given time	53
24. Distribution of the graduates of any college by present occupation	50
25. Kind of subjects taught in a college curriculum	48
26. Minor subjects taken by college graduates appointed to any position	46
27. Amount of each subject taught in a college curriculum	39
28. Major subject taken in college by those college graduates applying for any position	34
29. Previous number of years of experience of those college graduates appointed to a position	32
30. Type of the college, whether for whites or Negroes	32
31. Number of persons (either college graduates or others) gainfully employed in a given industry (as farming, manufacturing, etc.) at a given time	29
32. Type of degree held by those college graduates appointed to any given position	21
33. Age of professional applicant for a job	21
34. Major and minor subjects taken in college by graduates who apply for any position	14
35. Kind of job requested by unemployed college graduates	12
36. Minor subject taken in college by those college graduates applying for any position	12
37. Previous number of years of experience of applicant for a position	12
38. Number of college graduates applying during a given time for any position	11
39. Number of academic degrees granted to college graduates in any year or series of years	9
40. Type of degree held by those college graduates applying for any given position	8
41. Number of professional degrees granted to college graduates in any year, or series of years	3
42. Kinds of degree held by present graduates of college as: A.B., B.S., etc.	0

Factors Mentioned by Judges but Not Rated

1. Interests of student population of the college
2. Ability of student population
3. Compatibility of major with general aim of education
4. Kind and amount of equipment of the college

5. Number and quality of faculty
6. Relation of the college to the community
7. Obligations toward founders
8. Degree of selectivity of student body
9. Nature and needs of society
10. Size of the college
11. Resources available to the college
12. The economic situation at a given time.
13. The economic prospect
14. Economic wage paid for each kind of work over a period of years, say X years past
15. Economic wage likely to be paid for each kind of work during the working life of the worker
16. Secondary school standards
17. Traditional programs of the college
18. Social and economic conditions among those people graduates should serve

Objectives of Negro Colleges and Their Relative Rank as Determined by the Extent to Which Provision Is Made for Them in These Colleges

Some data on the factor ranked second in importance have been made available for an earlier period, but obviously much of the material is applicable today since certain basic objectives remain relatively constant. In the study in question officials of a selected number of colleges were questioned about the extent to which provision is made in their colleges for certain objectives.[2] Replies were received from eighteen colleges.

A check list of twenty-five aims was sent out, and the official was asked to check: (1) objectives provided for directly and specifically throughout the institution; (2) provided for directly and specifically in some departments; (3) indirectly or incidentally provided for; or (4) not considered.

To obtain a composite index of stress on the objectives by all the colleges, the percentages of schools reporting the various levels of stress were calculated. For instance, the aim: attention to individual differences was provided for directly and specifically throughout the institution by 38.9 per cent of the schools, directly in some departments by 27.8 per cent, indirectly by 27.8 per cent, and not at all by 5.5 per cent. The percentage of the first level of emphasis was multiplied by three, the second by two, the third by one, and the fourth by zero. The sum of these products was considered a measure of the index of emphasis for each objective.

The rank of the submitted objectives according to the size of their index of emphasis is:

1. Knowledge of subject matter
2. Command of the fundamental processes
3. Education of teachers
4. Morality and character training
5. Training for life needs
6. Scholarly and scientific attitudes
7. Attention to individual differences
8. Training for physical efficiency and health throughout life
9. Liberal education
10. Specific or professional and technical training to promote occupational or vocational efficiency
11. Providing for the cultural development of prospective teachers
12.5 Conserving the accomplishments of mankind
12.5 Training for leadership
14. Co-ordination and synthesis or integration of the major fields of knowledge and experience
15.5 Training of students in scientific techniques
15.5 Training for worthy home membership
17. Civic-social responsibility
18. Religious training
19. Training for the wise use of leisure throughout life
20. Preprofessional and pretechnical training
21. Manners
22. Research
23. Mental discipline
24. Education of graduate students to master's degree level

The first five aims indicate that the race college is chiefly concerned with dispensing knowledge, training teachers, developing character, and meeting life's needs. The history of the Negro college sustains this conclusion, and is well illustrated by the objectives of Hampton.[3]

2. L.V.Koos and C.C.Crawford, "College Aims, Past and Present," School and Society, XIV, Dec.1921, 499-509.
3. Ambrose Caliver, "Education of Negro Teachers," National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. IV, U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 10 (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933).

The Content of the Negro College Curriculum in 1898 and in 1910

Although the gradual change in subject-matter content of the curriculum of the Negro college has already been indicated in Chapter I, and implied in much of the occupational data, it is made more evident by examinations of specific material. A survey, in 1898, of eleven colleges showed the following per cent distribution of subject matter in their curricula: English 7 per cent; modern languages 10 per cent; ancient languages 29 per cent; natural science 15 per cent; history, political science, and philosophy 15 per cent; mathematics 13 per cent; and other subjects 11 per cent. This ranking clearly indicates a classical bent in the curriculum, with ancient languages having twice as much time allotted to them as any other field of learning. Moreover, nearly 40 per cent of the college program was devoted to foreign languages and only 7 per cent to English.[4]

A similar survey, in 1910, of eight of the same Negro colleges showed that subject-matter fields were stressed as follows: English 12 per cent; modern languages 17 per cent; ancient languages 19 per cent; natural science 14 per cent; history, political science, and philosophy 22 per cent; mathematics 10 per cent; and other subjects 6 per cent.[5]

Even the brief interval of ten years had effected some shift. While the college curriculum was classic at the end of the nineteenth century, a decade later it had been humanized by doubling English, and by greatly increasing modern languages and social science, at the expense of ancient languages and mathematics.

Development of the Liberal Arts College Curriculum

From its beginning in 1867, Fisk University has been considered the typical liberal arts college for Negro youth. Its cultural influence has been felt throughout the Southland for two generations. Consequently, to determine the trends which have taken place in the curriculum of the Negro college since the Civil War, a study was made of the number of courses offered in each subject at Fisk, as found in the curriculum records in its library.

Modern Languages. Before 1880 seven courses had been given in modern languages, but by the turn of the century the number of such courses had increased to twenty. As the World War opened, Fisk was giving four times as many foreign language courses as in the seventies. During the period between 1915 and 1926 there were sixty-eight courses, or nearly ten times as many as at the inception of such studies, and, between 1927 and 1935, the total number of courses for the period increased to one hundred and nine, or more than fifteen times the number in the first period.

Ancient Languages. The number of courses in ancient languages increased steadily from a total of thirty-four in the period from 1867 to 1878 to an average of sixteen courses annually from 1921 to 1932. Between 1933 and 1935 there was a sudden drop to two courses annually, marking a complete change of policy on the part of Fisk, which before these years had strongly stressed the ancient languages.

Philosophy and Psychology. Courses in philosophy and psychology increased from one in the period between 1867 and 1878 to thirty-three during the decade following the turn of the century. While sixty courses were given during the twelve years between 1921 and 1932, there were sixteen courses in the three years from 1933 to 1935.

Natural Science. Between 1867 and 1878 fifteen courses were given in the natural sciences. From 1891 to 1902 there were thirty-four. During the interval between 1902 and 1914 the number had increased to eighty-three; while from 1915 to 1926 one hundred and twenty-eight were given, or an average of eleven courses annually. Owing to the premedical requirements of Meharry Medical College, which is co-ordinating its program with that of Fisk, there has been a great increase in the number of natural science courses in the last decade.

4. The College-bred Negro, edited by W. E. B. DuBois, Atlanta University Publications No. 5 (Atlanta: Atlanta University Press, 1900), p. 28.
5. The College-bred Negro American, edited by W. E. B. DuBois and A. G. Dill, Atlanta University Publications No. 15 (Atlanta: Atlanta University Press, 1910), p. 21.

Social Sciences. The social sciences received little attention in the period from 1867 to 1878, there being only two courses. No great stress was placed on this subject until the period between 1903 and 1914, an interval during which fifty-three courses were given. During the next twelve years two hundred and eleven courses were given, while four hundred and forty-nine were given between 1927 and 1935. This great expansion in the social sciences is no doubt due to the fact that under the leadership of Dr. Charles S. Johnson, Fisk has stressed its social science department in the last decade.

English. Between 1867 and 1878 there were six courses in English. During the next decade the number was doubled, while, between 1891 and 1902, four times as many were given as in the initial period. Between 1903 and 1914 there was a total of fifty-five courses given; between 1915 and 1926 there were one hundred and ninety; and from 1927 to 1935 there were one hundred and eighty.

Mathematics. Between 1867 and 1878, Fisk gave thirteen courses in mathematics, and, from 1879 to 1890, twenty-one. There was no further increase in the ratio until the decade just before the World War, when the courses more than doubled the number given in the decade before the turn of the century. Between 1915 and 1926 there was a total of sixty-two courses, and for the next eight years (to 1935) the number rose to sixty-eight.

Education. In the decade after 1900 education first appeared in the Fisk curriculum,[6] and by 1914 one hundred and twelve courses had been given, while during the period between 1927 and 1935, two hundred and fourteen were taught.

Journalism. Fisk first organized its classes in journalism between 1915 and 1920, and in that interval five courses were given. During the next six years (1921 to 1926) the number totaled twenty-four, but decreased in the period between 1927 and 1935 to twenty-three.

Commerce. Only one course in commerce was given before 1878. During the six years between 1927 and 1932 the subject appeared again in the curriculum with a total of thirteen courses in that interval, while during the three-year period between 1933 and 1935, eighteen courses in business administration were given.

Agriculture. Twenty courses in agriculture were listed in the Fisk curriculum during the period from 1903 to 1914. This number increased to a total of twenty-nine between 1915 and 1926, after which no courses were given.

Practical Arts. Practical Arts were introduced into the curriculum in the decade before the World War. There was an average of five courses given during the years from 1915 to 1926, after which no more courses were given.

From the preceding data it is evident that some subjects in this program underwent certain vicissitudes, but in general the Fisk curriculum in seventy years has followed the educational trend away from a classic program to one of a humanized social and natural science content.

Curricula of Negro Colleges in 1936

To obtain more data of recent trends the curricula of six typical colleges were summarized by the subject-matter fields as given in the catalogues of those schools in 1936. The average number of courses per college follows: English, 22; education, 17; history, 12; mathematics, 12; biology, 11; chemistry, 11; French, 11; music, 10; economics, 10; sociology, 9; physical education, 9; religion, 7; German, 6; physics, 6; home economics, 4.8; political science, 4; philosophy, 4; psychology, 3.8; Spanish, 2.5; Greek, 2; Art, 1.8; Latin, 1; and agriculture, 1.

If these subject-matter offerings are classified under the same categories that were used in the study of the opinions of Negro college graduates as to the most useful subject in relation to their present occupation, it is possible to compare the ranks of subject-matter fields as found in the above curricula, with the same subjects as judged by graduates:

Rank of Subjects in Six College Curricula	Rank According to Graduates
1. Natural Science	1.5 Natural Science
2. Social Science	1.5 English

6. There was a normal department before 1900, which gave courses in education.

Rank of Subjects in Six College Curricula	Rank According to Graduates
3. English	3. Social Science
4. Foreign Languages	4. Mathematics
5. Education	5. Education
6.5 Mathematics	6.5 Foreign Languages
6.5 Music and Arts	6.5 Business and Economics
8.5 Business and Economics	8.5 Music and Arts
8.5 Religion and Philosophy	8.5 Religion and Philosophy

If the judgment of graduates is used as a criterion of the importance of subject-matter in the curriculum, English replaces social science in second rank, mathematics is put in fourth place, occupied by foreign languages, which in turn ranks with business and economics, while music and art changes places with business and economics in the relative importance of their experience-value to graduates. The correlation between the two lists is .80.

A Determination of the Significance of the Peculiar Problems of Negroes in Contemporary American Society

The curriculum of the Negro college must base a part of its activities and aims upon the problems which the Negroes meet and must adjust themselves to in American society. In a recent study one hundred and thirty of these problems or issues were isolated, and the frequency of occurrence of each problem given by an analysis of sixteen books and eight magazines which most adequately state and analyze contemporary problems of the Negro in American society.[7]

By means of Carver's method it is possible to construct a scale of values for the problems, based upon the frequency of their occurrence in the literature used in this analysis. It is assumed that the more significant the problem the greater the frequency of occurrence.[8] The frequency of occurrence ranged from one to eighty-nine. The average frequency of occurrence was 11.57, that is, a problem was discussed in the literature an average of eleven times. Table 72 gives the scale value based upon the number of times the various problems were mentioned.

Table 72

SHOWING THE FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF CERTAIN PROBLEMS PECULIAR TO THE NEGRO IN CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN SOCIETY AS THEY APPEARED IN CERTAIN BOOKS AND MAGAZINES

Number of times problem was discussed in selected literature	Number of problems which occurred a given number of times	Scale value showing significance of problem, based on frequency of mention
0-4	39	-.16
5-9	38	0
10-14	18	.76
15-19	13	1.56
20-24	6	2.30
25-29	5	3.06
30-34	3	3.83
35-39	2	4.60
40-44	2	5.37
45-49	0	6.13
50-54	1	6.90
55-59	2	7.67
60-64	0	8.44
65-69	0	9.20
70-74	0	9.97
75-79	0	10.74
80-84	0	11.51
85-89	1	12.27
Total	130	

By means of Table 72 it is possible to determine the relative significance of all the problems, insofar as frequency of discussion in the literature determines the importance of the question to the race.

Sample problems from each frequency interval are as follows:

I. Labor unions (Problem 15). When excluded from white labor unions, should Negroes organize separate unions of their

7. D. A. Wilkerson, "A Determination of the Peculiar Problems of Negroes in Contemporary American Society," Journal of Negro Education, Vol. V, July, 1936.
8. H. C. Carver, op. cit.

own?

Frequency 3. Scale value -.76

II. Occupational opportunities (Problem 3). The problem of promoting greater security of tenure for Negro workers in industry.

Frequency 8. Scale value -.0

III. Problems of education (Problem 81). The problem of extending opportunities of Negroes for professional education, especially in the South.

Frequency 14. Scale value .76

IV. Problems of personal and social integration attitudes, stereotypes, and beliefs (Problem 67). The problem of eradicating the widespread and erroneous belief that Negroes are by nature peculiarly inclined towards criminal behavior, especially sex offenses. The problem of developing more accurate crime and delinquency records concerning Negroes.

Frequency 18. Scale value 1.56

V. Problems of health (Problem 42). The problem of decreasing the excessive mortality rate among Negroes.

Frequency 21. Scale value 2.30.

VI. Occupational opportunities (Problem 10). The general problem of raising the economic status of the Negro.

Frequency 25. Scale value 3.06

VII. Housing (Problem 49). The problem of providing more adequate housing facilities for Negroes, particularly in cities.

Frequency 34. Scale value 3.83

VIII. Personal and social integration (Problem 72). The problem of avoiding the development of feelings of inferiority on the part of Negroes.

Frequency 36. Scale value 4.60

IX. Political problems (Problem 30). The problem of extending to Negroes opportunity for unrestricted participation in political life.

Frequency 44. Scale value 5.37

X. Segregation and discrimination (Problem 41). The general problem of eliminating segregation and discrimination against Negroes. Avoiding legal sanctions of such discrimination.

Frequency 51. Scale value 6.90

XI. Lynching, police treatment (Problem 35). The problem of eliminating mob violence and lynching of Negroes. Providing Negroes with adequate police protection against mobs, especially in the South.

Frequency 55. Scale value 7.67

XII. Legal (Problem 32). The problem of issuing for Negroes impartial interpretation of the law by courts, especially in the South.

Frequency 89. Scale value 12.27

This method of determining the importance of these contemporary problems, while suggestive, no doubt is somewhat inadequate since the curve of frequencies is badly skewed (-.81) because literature dealing with the Negro is more or less radical and lopsided in regard to racial-conflict issues. Nevertheless, the one hundred and thirty problems furnish ample material for the race-college curriculum builder.

Summary

1. Factors in the formulation of a college program which rate more than 74 on a scale of 100 are: subjects to be taught prospective teachers; objectives of college education; philosophy of the college; theories of higher education held by college educators; certification requirements; subject taken in college of most use in present occupation of graduates; subjects which teachers desire to teach; major and work interested in; major taken in college by graduates appointed; and number of unemployed persons in any given profession.

2. Before 1920 the selected aims of Negro colleges, according to emphasis given in the college program which had an index of emphasis of 66 or above, are: knowledge of subject matter; command of the basic processes; education of teachers; morality and character training; training for life's needs; and scholarly and scientific attitude.

3. Although the content of the Negro college curriculum before 1900 was predominantly classic with some science and mathematics, by 1910 the domination of the classics had given way to social science and modern languages. The curriculum trends of a typical liberal arts college indicate the nature and extent of this shift. During the decade ending in 1935 fifteen times the number of courses in modern languages were given as compared to the number during the first decade of the

college's existence. By 1935 the number of courses in classics had dropped sharply. Philosophy showed fluctuations, but with psychology totaled sixteen courses during the period from 1933 to 1935. Social science showed the greatest increase, a total of four hundred courses having been given during the eight years preceding 1935. English and natural sciences showed steady growth, while emphasis on premedical training was reflected in the science work. Education courses have had a prominent place since 1900, some two hundred and fourteen being given between 1927 and 1935. Journalism and business administration have appeared in recent years. Agriculture and practical arts courses have fluctuated, but none were being given in 1935.

4. In 1936 the composite picture of the program offerings of six colleges placed English first with twenty-two courses, education with seventeen, history and mathematics with twelve each, biology, chemistry and French with eleven each, music and economics with ten each. Greek, Latin and agriculture came at the end of the list. The offerings included such subjects as home economics, physical education, politics, and art, which indicate the variety of interests, and suggest an adaptation to present general tendencies toward a broad curriculum.

Chapter VII

CONCLUSIONS

A survey of the history of Negro institutions of higher education, their past and present curricula, and the occupational trends of graduates indicates that the Negro college has been predominantly liberal in its program of instruction, although in some instances it has followed a vocational or a mixed program of practical and liberal arts. Certain facts however suggest that, despite this tendency, the vocational type of program is best adapted to the majority of students. Standard intelligence-test scores of Negro college students, the restrictions against Negro students in many colleges, and a high mortality among Negro college students all indicate that the rank and file of these students will not do satisfactory collegiate work in the typical American liberal arts institution. The level of intelligence of the average race college student is that of a craftsman following mechanical pursuits. In the light of these facts the program of instruction of the average Negro college should be of a vocational nature adapted to the capacities of the majority of students which it serves.[1]

Regardless of the apparent aptitude of the race toward the vocational, professional work has attracted 70 per cent of Negro college graduates, while three-fourths of 6,000 Negro high-school seniors have indicated their intention to enter the occupations followed by the majority of Negro college graduates. Moreover, nearly as many trade graduates have entered the professions as have stayed in the trades, indicating in particular an emphasis on the part of vocational schools toward teacher training. It may be seriously questioned whether professional work has not claimed far too much attention, especially at the expense of other occupations that seem better suited to the Negro. Moreover, occupational and employment studies suggest that certain professions, especially teaching, have reached the saturation point or offer little employment opportunity. Vocational or normal colleges have been no more effective in placing their graduates than the academic or professional colleges, if time between graduation and placement in chosen occupation can be taken as a measure of college effectiveness.

The significance of these facts for the formulation of the Negro college program of instruction suggests certain conclusions. (1) The college should organize an effective and scientific vocational and educational guidance program for its students. (2) The college should investigate the present instructional programs of the vocational course of study to see if they are keeping pace with the demands of the industrial and occupational patterns.

In gauging these trends and needs, the occupational distribution of the general Negro male population seems to be of vital importance to the vocational college, for this investigation has shown that there is a fairly close correlation between the general occupational distribution and that of the trade graduates. Trends of employment thus become significant in determining the potential placement of trade graduates and, consequently, in shaping the vocational program of the college to meet these demands.

Certain significant trends of employment have been noted in this investigation. (1) There appears to be a close positive relation between occupational employment and unemployment in the general population of gainfully employable Negro

1. In this dissertation the potential intelligence of the various races is assumed to be equal. The level of intelligence of the present Negro college student can no doubt be explained on the basis of certain factors which have brought about a selection of lower intelligence, than that found in white colleges. Klineberg, Otto, Race Differences. (New York: Harper Bros., 1935.)

males. That is, the occupations which have the largest per cent of employment in normal times show the greatest per cent of unemployment in times of economic depression. (2) In the past fifty years, when a number of occupations is considered, salesmen have shown one of the largest positive percentage changes of increase in the general Negro population, while the building trades and teaching have the greatest negative percentage changes of increase. It is these two occupations which have claimed the majority of trade graduates considered in this study. (3) Tailoring, printing, and the building and machinist trades have held their graduates better, showing the lowest percentage of occupational change. (4) Very few trade graduates have entered business, agriculture, or government service.

Although these particular trends of employment may not be the most important for the future program of instruction, they at least indicate that it is possible for this vocational program to take cognizance of such factors, and to be based partially, at least, on such trends as exist or may be discovered by thorough analysis of current data. Among these data are the employment indexes of the general Negro population and those of the college graduates.

Certain employment trends, for example, of the Negro college graduate in New York have been revealed by this investigation. (1) The Negro college graduate tends to be subject to the general labor market in New York City, as well as to that of the country as a whole. (2) Academic degrees, especially the A.B., do not ensure employment. In fact, many of the jobs for which college graduates applied would not require a college education. (3) The chosen occupation, work applied for, type of training, previous experience, and work placed in, show little correlation.

Although the material collected in New York covers a period of national economic depression, it presents a situation which the college should help its graduates to meet. On the basis of the New York data, the most effective type of training seems to be that of a general course, with emphasis on social science and on vocational and mechanical subjects.

Statistics given in this dissertation indicate that the annual number of Negro teachers needed for the United States is less than half of those in training and of these the greatest demand is for general elementary and secondary teachers. Moreover, there has been a substantial falling off in the demand for teachers, as measured by calls reaching the Howard and Fisk University Placement Bureaus. In fact, the Howard University Teacher Placement Bureau was closed in 1933 because there were so few calls for candidates. The Negro college, in the reorganization of its program of instruction, should recognize the fact that too many teachers are being trained, and should survey the possibilities of placement in the territory which it may be expected to supply, and attempt to balance the supply with the demand, selecting prospective teachers by the most exacting methods.

From its inception the college has had to meet the problem of integrating the liberal, social, theoretical, personal and practical phases of its work. On the basis of the opinions of well-known educators the integration must come through comprehension of the racial order in which the Negro college functions, and its objectives must be the establishment of an ideology and techniques which will reshape the social pattern.[2]

General Implications Growing Out of the Various Phases of this Investigation

Although several of the general implications growing out of this investigation have been touched upon in the preceding paragraphs, a few others should be noted.

1. It seems obvious that an integrating vocational-liberal arts program is the best solution to the problem of higher curricula for Negroes, whatever the specific emphasis of the individual college.

2. In the liberal arts college there should be an expansion of the social sciences in the curriculum, based upon the social and economic needs of the race. In

2. Liberal Arts curricula and colleges have, and must play an all-important part in meeting this problem, and it is not the purpose of this dissertation in any wise to minimize the role which the Liberal Arts College has and must play in the higher education of the Negro.

addition the tendency to overstress teacher training as a function of the college should be checked, while the number of professional courses (mainly education) should be decreased.

3. In the vocational college scientific steps should be taken to halt the tendency to overexpand in literary courses. The function of the vocational college should be to train craftsmen rather than teachers of craftsmen. Agricultural and industrial courses must be scientifically reorganized, administered, and taught; business and commercial courses should be of sufficiently advanced types to enable Negro business to take its place in the prevailing business system; while the expansion of race agriculture and business should be encouraged.

4. In both vocational and liberal arts institutions the general quality of work given should be placed and kept on the collegiate level. Standards should be raised in the selection of students, in the levels of scholarship, and in the requirements for teaching personnel. Each student should be encouraged and helped to "take stock" to determine whether his abilities lie in the direction of the vocational, business, or professional, and in which line of endeavor he would be most likely to succeed.

5. In view of the race needs the personnel program is as important as the subject-matter program. It should aim to develop the personality of the students, and to enable them to understand the occupational opportunities in terms of the equipment required for them. Such general tendencies as those toward the professions and teaching should be discussed and discouraged, while occupational diversification should be encouraged. The problems arising from the urbanization of the race should be presented, and the difficulties which Negroes in large cities are encountering made clear. The college-trained Negro, as well as those in the professions, should be encouraged to remain in the South, where greater opportunity apparently exists.

6. Vocational guidance, implied under that of the personnel program, should extend to the placement of students, and to the exploration of possible new fields of occupational opportunity. This is particularly needed in the land-grant colleges, with their specialization in agriculture and the mechanical arts. It is clear that the race must better its economic condition in order to improve its cultural status, and that it is the chief function of the college to assume leadership in this direction by considering the economic aspects of the race problem from every approach, and to neglect no line of activity that may lead to this end.

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APPENDIX A

Institutions visited by the author during the course of this investigation:

Agricultural and Technical College for Negroes, Nashville, Tenn.

Federal Emergency Relief Bureau, Chicago, Ill.

Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.

Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

Howard University, Washington, D.C.

Langston University, Langston, Okla.

Lincoln University, Jefferson City, Mo.

Missouri Employment Bureau, St. Louis, Mo.

New York State Employment Service (downtown and Harlem offices), New York, N.Y.

New York Urban League (downtown and Harlem offices), New York, N.Y.

St. Louis Urban League, St. Louis, Mo.

Wiley University, Marshall, Tex.

APPENDIX B

Names and positions of persons
who aided in the investigation,
with their organizations.

In making this study the author was assisted by educators and sociologists familiar with the Negro college and its problems, by registrars, placement secretaries, librarians and other officials, and by office assistants who did helpful work in collecting facts and assembling material.

Federal Emergency Relief Office, South Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
The Statistical Bureau afforded data on unemployment in Illinois in 1935.

Fisk University.
Dr. Charles S. Johnson, Professor of Sociology. Miss Yokum, a member of the library staff, Miss Celestine Bell, a graduate of the university, and Miss White.

Hampton Institute.
Members of the faculty engaged in agricultural, academic, trade, business and personnel work.
Mr. Lorenzo C. White, Secretary of Records and Appointments.
Miss Reed, Director of the Bureau of Records.
Mrs. Isham.

Howard University.
Dr. Charles Thompson, Professor of Education.
Mr. F. D. Wilkerson, Registrar, and his assistants.

Langston University.
Dean Benjamin F. Lee.
Mr. Adkins, a student in the university.

Lincoln University.
Dr. Charles W. Florence, former President.

Morgan College.
Dr. Dwight Holmes, President.

New York State Employment Service.
Director and head statistician of the downtown office.
Mrs. Victoria Roan, Director of the Harlem office, and various staff members.

New York Urban League.
Mr. T. Arnold Hill, and various staff members.

St. Louis Public Schools.
Mr. George R. Johnson, Director of Tests and Measurements.

St. Louis Urban League.
Mr. John T. Clark, Secretary.
Mr. Charles A. Collier, Jr., former Industrial Secretary, now Industrial Secretary of the New York Urban League.

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Used in Rating Factors in the Formulation of a College Program.

Questionnaires were mailed to a large number of white and Negro colleges. Responses were received from the following:

Columbia University--Teachers of higher education.

Columbia University, Teachers College--A class of higher education students.

Hampton Institute--Teachers.

Howard University--Teachers of education.

Indiana, University of--Teachers of education.

Peabody College--Teachers of education.

(A copy of the questionnaire that was used is appended.)

32. Number of unemployed persons in any given profession..... 1 2 3 4 ☐☐☐☐

33. Number of professional workers of any give profession in proportion to the total population..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

34. Age of professional applicant for a job..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

35. Kind of job requested by unemployed college graduates..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

36. Kinds of subjects taught in a college curriculum..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

37. Amount of each subject taught in a college curriculum..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

38. Major subject studied in college and present occupation engaged in by college graduates..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

39. Present occupation of college graduates and most useful subject taken in college..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

40. Whether college is vocational or academic type and time between graduation and first employment..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

41. Type of work engaged in by college graduate and income..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

42. Major in college and work interested in..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

LIST OTHER POSSIBLE FACTORS

1. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

2. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

3. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

4. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

5. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

Student—yes or no .....

Name..... Official position .....

.....

Factors in the Formulation of a College Program

(Refers only to college graduates unless otherwise indicated)

Below are listed certain items which you are asked to note with reference to their value in the formulation of a program or curriculum for a college. Base your rating on your best judgment.

DIRECTIONS

Put a check in one square under one number of the scale according to the following values:

5 equals greatest value.
4 equals great value.
3 equals some value.
2 equals little value
1 equals no value.

Check just one square for each factor.

Example: Subjects studied by prospective college students in High School ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

FACTORS TO BE RATED

1. Kinds of degree held by present graduates of colleges as A. B., B. S., etc. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

2. Number of college graduates applying during a given time for any position. ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

3. Whether the college is for whites or negroes..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

4. Type of degree held by those college graduates appointed to any given position (A. B., B. S., etc.): ..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

5. Type of degree held by those college graduates applying for any given position..... 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

6. Major subjects taken in college by those college graduates appointed to any position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

7. Minor subjects taken by college graduates appointed to any position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

8. Major and minor subject combination taken by college graduates appointed to any position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

9. Major subject taken in college by those college graduates applying for any given position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

10. Minor subject taken in college by those college graduates applying for any position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

11. Major and minor subjects taken in college by graduates who apply for any position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

12. Subjects which applicant for a teaching position desires to teach. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

13. Subjects which those appointed desire to teach. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

14. Previous number of years of experience of applicant for a position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

15. Previous number of years of experience of those college graduates appointed to a position. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

16. Number of persons (either college graduates or others) gainfully employed in a given industry, (as farming, manufacturing, commerce, etc.) at a given time. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

17. Number of gainfully employed professional workers in a given state at a given time. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

18. Number of doctors or teachers or other professional workers in a given state at a given time, (whether employed or not). 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

19. Number of persons in any given profession in proportion to the total number of persons in all professions. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

20. The History of Higher Education. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

21. The Philosophy of Higher Education. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

22. The objectives of College Education. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

23. Theories of College Education held by various college educators. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

24. Subjects to be taught as indicated in requests for teachers. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

25. Kind of school from which requests came for teachers (as elementary, high school, or college) 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

26. Number of persons placed in a given position in a given time. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

27. Number of help wanted in a given position in a given time. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

28. Educational qualifications required for certification of teachers in any given state. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

29. Distribution of the graduates of any college by present occupation. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

30. Number of academic degrees granted to college graduates in any year or series of years. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

31. Number of professional degrees granted to college graduates in any year or series of years. 1 2 3 4 5 ☐☐☐☐☐

APPENDIX D

Forms used by the Placement Bureaus of

Fisk University.

Hampton Institute.

New York State Employment Service.

New York Urban League.

St. Louis Public Schools.

FISK UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT BUREAU

FISK UNIVERSITY

Nashville, Tennessee

The Fisk University Placement Bureau is organized and equipped to find employment opportunities for graduates of Fisk University and graduates of other colleges with similar ratings and standards.

The Bureau is not operated for profit and is, therefore, not interested primarily in the number of placements made, but it is definitely interested in quality placements. In accordance with the principle of operation no charges are made for registration or any service rendered by the Bureau. However, if, in the estimation of the applicant, he or she feels disposed to contribute to the support of Fisk University on this phase of its program or any other, such contributions will be gladly received.

Each applicant's qualifications as to college training, experience record, and character will be thoroughly investigated before he or she is recommended to any position. On this basis a transcript of undergraduate and graduate work will be required of every applicant.

A small photograph, about 2 x 3 inches, must accompany each application.

The enclosed blank, properly filled out, should be returned to Andrew J. Allison, Director, Fisk University Placement Bureau, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee.

FISK UNIVERSITY PLACEMENT BUREAU

Paste recent photo here

All information treated strictly confidential

No application considered complete without photograph

NAME _____ Sex ____ Date _____
First Middle Last

ADDRESS _____
No. Street City State

College _____ Grad. Date ____ Degrees _____ Honors _____

Other Schools, Degrees, Honors _____

All Major Studies _____ Scholastic Average _____

College Activities _____

Organizations, College, Outside _____

Number of Hours of Education _____

Birth Year _____ Height _____ Weight _____ Religion _____

Married _____ Number of Dependents _____ Father's Occupation _____
(Even though deceased)

Languages Spoken _____ Read _____ Written _____

Occupations Interested In _____
(List in order of preference)

In what sections of the country do you prefer work? _____

In what fields have you had special training? _____

What is the minimum salary you will accept? _____

RECORD OF EXPERIENCE--Start with present or last position. Enter others in order backward. Leave no gaps.

Position	Nature of Work	Salary	Employer's Name & Address	Date

An extra sheet should be given showing details of experience in each place and other helpful information.

Birthplace of Self _____ Father _____ Mother _____

Places Lived, How Long _____

Hobbies, Studies You Like Best _____

Physical Impairments _____

REFERENCES: (Faculty Names, Business Associates, Personal Friends)

1. Name _____ Address _____
2. Name _____ Address _____
3. Name _____ Address _____

SEND TRANSCRIPT OF UNDERGRADUATE AND GRADUATE WORK

HAMPTON INSTITUTE
RECORD OFFICE

REGISTRATION AND APPLICATION FOR PLACEMENT

HAMPTON INSTITUTE, through the Record Office, offers to graduating Seniors placement service without charge. In view of the considerable expense and effort involved, however, the School expects registrants on their part *to give adequate consideration to all notices received, to be punctual and businesslike in their correspondence and interviews with prospective employers, and to keep the Record Office fully informed regarding any facts which might affect their status as applicants for employment.* Prompt notice, to the Record Office, of change of address is important.

Although the Record Office will bring to the applicant's attention opportunities for which he seems to be qualified, the burden of securing a position rests entirely upon himself. The Record Office does not urge candidates upon employers, but merely attempts to bring together the two interested parties.

AFTER THIS BLANK IS FILLED OUT, ARRANGEMENTS FOR A PERSONAL INTERVIEW SHOULD BE MADE AT ONCE.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS — INFORMATION WILL BE REGARDED AS CONFIDENTIAL

Print name in full .....Hampton class .....Today's date.....

Date of birth .....Degree expected.....Other degrees if any.....

Date of entering Hampton.....Schools previously attended .....

Permanent address.....Telephone number.....

.....

College address .....Telephone number.....

Enter below as completely and definitely as possible, data as to honors, extra-curriculum actitvities, earnings etc. Add any items not already specified.

HONORS AND PRIZES	STUDENT ACTIVITIES	PREVIOUS REMUNERATIVE EMPLOYMENT
Scholastic Honors and Appointments	Membership in (give names) and offices held Societies	During term time Amount earned (approximate) Freshman
	Clubs	Sophomore
	Publications	Junior
Prizes and Scholarships won	Debating	Senior
	Public Speaking	Summer vacation (Nature of work, earnings)
	Music	1.
	Dramatics	2.
	Religious Work	
	Social Service	
Class Honors (Student Council, Class Offices or Committees etc.)		3.
	Athletics (specify what sports) and No. of years Varsity Team	Other regular employment (before or during college course)
	Varsity Squad	
	Class Team	Military or Naval Training

Add any hobbies or diversions to which you devote much time during term time or vacation.....

.....

Would you accept a position involving a considerable amount of traveling?.....

Give as references the names of three persons, not relatives, who are qualified to estimate your capabilities.

NAME	COMPLETE ADDRESS	OCCUPATION

(OVER)

Religious affiliation? ..... Nationality? ..... Parents' nationality? .....

State physical defects, if any .....

To what locality, if any, are you limited? ..... What locality do you prefer? .....

Would you accept employment in another country? ..... Where? .....

State any special qualifications for work in such countries .....

What foreign languages can you *speak fluently?* ..... Read and write *easily?* .....

What others have you studied? .....

Will you be to a large extent financially dependent upon your salary? ..... Do you expect within the next year to contribute from your salary to the support of others? ..... State what you consider to be the *minimum* salary per month you can accept .....

What positions have you in the past considered desirable? .....

What prospects have you already for employment, either in general or with reference to some specific position? .....

.....

Underline in the following list of classifications the type of work you wish to secure. In addition check any work in which you have had experience. (Work for which you have *both* inclination and experience should be indicated *both* by checking and by underlining.) Indicate possible preference by numbering choices. If you are entirely uncertain as to what you want to do, leave this unchecked until after your employment interview. The more clearly you can indicate either positively or negatively what you do or do not want to do, however, the more helpful the interview and placement service of the office can be to you.

BUSINESS

Advertising
Accounting
Clerical
Secretarial
Teaching
Salesmanship
Real Estate
Insurance
  Life
  Fire
  Industrial
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

EDUCATION

High School
  Administration
  Supervision
  Teaching
    Majors
.....
.....
.....
  Other subjects able to teach
.....
.....
.....
Elementary
  Principal
  Supervision
  Teaching
    Grades
.....
.....
.....

Music
  Able to Direct
    Band
    Orchestra
    Choral group
  Play what Instruments
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
Can coach:
  Athletics
.....
.....
  Dramatics
.....
.....

HOME ECONOMICS

Teaching
  Clothing
  Foods
  Art
  Home Management
Cafeteria
Dietetics
Home Demonstration Agent
Child Care
General Housework

LIBRARY SCIENCE

Public
College
High School
Private
Other

NURSING

Public Health
Hospital
Private

TRADE SCHOOL

Building Trades
  Contracting
  Foreman
  Bricklaying
  Carpentry
  Electric wiring
  Plastering & Concrete work
  Painting
  Interior Decorating
  Steamfitting & Plumbing
Other Trades
  Auto Mechanics
  Upholstery
  Machinist work
  Machinist helper
Trade Teaching. Fields:
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Describe here in more detail your special interests in occupations underlined above. State also the nature of any experience you have had during summer vacations or at other times, whether related to the type of employment you now seek, or not.....

.....

.....

.....

What do you consider the most responsible position you have ever held? .....

.....

Make any further statement desired with reference to special experience; familiarity with the work desired; your eventual goal; aptitudes or qualifications for particular sorts of work, etc. .....

.....

.....

.....

In what studies have you specialized? ..... In what subjects have you been most interested? .....

In what subjects have you done your best work? ..... What subjects have given you particular difficulty? .....

I have read this application carefully and agree to the terms stated on the first page.

.....

Signature

For Office Record Only—Do Not Fill In.

Freshman Sophomore Junior Senior

College Classification Rating

Placed ..... Salary .....

NEW YORK STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

NEW YORK STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

_____, _____ 193__

TO _____

_____

IN RESPONSE TO YOUR REQUEST,

WE ARE INTRODUCING _____

ADDRESS _____ SOC. SEC. NO. _____

AS AN APPLICANT

FOR POSITION OF _____

We appreciate your use of our Service and hope you will call us again. Please check result below, sign and return this card. No postage is required.

EMPLOYED

YES _____ DATE TO START WORK _____ _____

NO _____ REASON _____ Interviewer

_____ _____

Employer's Signature Manager

Labor - ES 325

NAME OF EMPLOYER		JOB	M F / OCC. CODE / IND. CODE
ADDRESS		RACE—RELIGION—NATIONALITY	SIZE—APPEARANCE / PHYSICAL EXAM?
TELEPHONE / BUSINESS		AGE—MARITAL STATUS—OTHER ITEMS	UNION
APPLY TO / TITLE		EDUCATION—TRAINING—EXPERIENCE REQUIRED	
ADDRESS TO APPLY / TELEPHONE			
LOCALITY AND DIRECTIONS FOR GOING			
DESCRIPTION OF JOB		MACHINES TO BE OPERATED / DEGREE OF SKILL	

DATE	OPEN.	DUR.	RATE	HOURS	REMARKS	RESULTS

LABOR-ES-12.1-100M

NEW YORK STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
AFFILIATED WITH
UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

PENALTY FOR PRIVATE USE TO AVOID
PAYMENT OF POSTAGE, $300

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

Post Card

NEW YORK STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

NAME OF APPLICANT	SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER	DATE REF'D.	DATE OF START OF WORK	RESULT	REMARKS	OTHER PLACEMENT INFORMATION

AFTER JANUARY 31, 1938

RESIDENTS OF PLACES LISTED AT BOTTOM MUST DELIVER THIS CARD IN PERSON

TO THE PROPER OFFICE NEAREST THE PLACE WHERE THEY LIVE OR WERE LAST EMPLOYED

To NEW YORK STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

E. R. No.

SOCIAL SECURITY ACC'T NO. | | | | | | | | | |

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

DATE _____

MY NAME IS _____ (Print) HOME TEL. NO. _____

MY HOME ADDRESS IS _____

NAME OF MY LAST EMPLOYER _____ (Print) BUSINESS ADDRESS _____

THE LAST DAY ON WHICH I WORKED FOR WAGES WAS _____ (Month Day Year) MY JOB WAS _____ (Occupation or Trade)

SIGNATURE _____

LABOR ES-333. 11-A

(Fold On This Line—Do Not Detach)

SOCIAL SECURITY ACC'T NO. | | | | | | | | | |

NOTICE OF UNEMPLOYMENT

DATE _____

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

E. R. No.

MY NAME IS _____ (Print) HOME TEL. NO. _____

MY HOME ADDRESS IS _____

NAME OF MY LAST EMPLOYER _____ (Print) BUSINESS ADDRESS _____

THE LAST DAY ON WHICH I WORKED FOR WAGES WAS _____ (Month Day Year) MY JOB WAS _____ (Occupation or Trade)

☐ I HAVE
☐ I HAVE NOT

CHECK CORRECT STATEMENT (ONLY ONE) FILED A "NOTICE OF UNEMPLOYMENT" FORM LIKE THIS SINCE JANUARY 1, 1938

I HEREBY CERTIFY THAT I AM NOW UNEMPLOYED, THAT I AM AVAILABLE FOR AND CAPABLE OF WORK, AND THAT MY FOREGOING STATEMENTS ARE TRUE AND CORRECT.

SIGNATURE _____

LABOR ES-333. 11-B 60

(See Other Side of Card)

DURING JANUARY, 1938, ONLY, ALL APPLICANTS SHOULD MAIL THIS CARD

New York City, Bayshore, Brewster, Glen Cove, Hempstead, Hicksville, Huntington, Mt. Vernon, New Rochelle, Nyack, Ossining, Patchogue, Peekskill, Port Chester, Port Washington, Riverhead, Rockville Center, Tarrytown, White Plains, Yonkers.

NO STAMP NECESSARY

SEAL BEFORE MAILING

NO STAMP NECESSARY

Date Ending _____ (month) (day) (year)

☐ Weekly
☐ Split Weekly

New York State Employment Service
affiliated with
United States Employment Service

Office _____ (code)

Address _____

Report Compiled by _____

WEEKLY AND SPLIT WEEKLY REPORT OF ACTIVE FILE AND TRANSACTIONS

I. BALANCE OF ACTIVE FILE	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	VETERANS
1a. Active File, beginning of period....				
b. New Applications.....				
c. Reregistrations: i Regular.....				
ii Automatic.....				
d. Moved-Ins.....				
e. Clearance Transfers-In.....				
f. Supplementary Transfers-In.....				
g. Adjustments (plus).....				
h. TOTAL ADDITIONS.....				
2a. Placements, this office.....				
b. Placements, N.Y.C.--C.P.O.....				
c. Cancelled Applications, this office.				
d. Cancelled Applications, N.Y.C.-C.P.O.				
e. Moved-Outs.....				
f. Clearance Transfers-Out.....				
g. Supplementary Transfers-Out.....				
h. Adjustments (minus).....				
i. TOTAL SUBTRACTIONS.....				
3. Active File, end of period.....				

II. TRANSACTIONS--PLACEMENTS, THIS OFFICE	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	VETERANS
1. Local, total.....				
a. Private.....				
i. Regular.....				
ii. Temporary.....				
b. Public.....				
c. Relief.....				
2. Clearance, total.....				
a. Private.....				
i. Regular.....				
ii. Temporary.....				
b. Public.....				
c. Relief.....				

III. TRANSACTIONS--MISCELLANEOUS	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	VETERANS
1. Field Visits.....				
2. Orders.....				
3. Openings.....				
4. Cancelled Openings.....				
5. Referrals, Total.....				
Men.....				
Women.....				

6. Referral Interviews, total _____ Men _____ Women _____
7. Renewal, total _____ Men _____ Women _____
8. Reinterviews _____ 9. Openings Cleared _____ 10. "Stops" _____
11. Applicants Applied for Registration or Reregistration _____
a. Applicants Filed Notices of Unemployment, total _____ This Office _____
Other Offices _____
b. Employed _____
c. Other _____
12. _____ 13. _____ 14. _____

Additional Comments: _____

Labor ES-702.

NEW YORK URBAN LEAGUE, INC.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT
NEW YORK URBAN LEAGUE, INC.
EDgecombe 4-9600 204 West 136th Street, New York 19

TO:_____
Address:_____
Introducing:_____
For position of: Wages:
Worker:
TO EMPLOYER: Please fill out and mail, or phone.
Have you engaged this applicant?
Do you want others? How many?
Hired? Not Hired?
Employer_ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _

EMPLOYER'S ORDER

Name Date Nature of business

Address Apt. Tel. How received T E.V. Rec. Ad. F.W. O.

Help wanted No. wanted Duration of order P T Wages

Hours Sex Age limit Type

Domestic	Industrial	Clerical	Renewals
No. of adults	Description of Work	Qualifications	
No. of children		Shorthand	
No. of rooms		Typing	
Cooking		Filing	
Sleep in or out		Bookkeeping	
Laundry		Multigraphing	
		Switchboard Operating	

How reached:

Received by

Applicants Sent				
Sent by	Name	Position	Date	Result

NEW YORK URBAN LEAGUE, 202-6 W. 136th Street, New York City

(Furnished to New York Urban League)

WEEKLY TALLY SHEET

Employment Office Report

New York State Employment Service
Affiliated with
United States Employment Service

Period covered _____ Name of Interviewer _____

Item	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Total
New applications							
Renewals							
Transfers-in							
Cancelled applications							
Transfers-out							
Openings							
Cancelled openings							
Referrals							
Placements confirmed: (Including Transfers-in) Regular							
Temporary							

This form is suggested as one method of obtaining the data requested on the monthly report. One should be given to each interviewer who may tally each transaction as it occurs or count the total number of different transactions at the end of each day and record the number under the proper items. When a month begins in the middle of a week, a new tally sheet should be started.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT — NEW YORK URBAN LEAGUE, 202-4-6 West 136th Street, New York City.

Last Name	First	Mid. Init.	Age Male Female	Reg. Date	Renewal Dates
Address		Apt. P. H.	Care of	Telephone	
Change of Address					

Date of Birth	Birthplace	How Long in:	Citizen	Religion	Referred by
Mo.		U. S.	Non-Citizen		
Day		State			
Yr.		City	Papers		

Single	Living at home	Drive Car	Member of Union
Married	Rooming	Own car	
Widowed	Boarding	Chauffeur's license	
Separated	Willing to leave city	Operator's license	Local No.
Divorced	Willing to live at work	Other license	Own Tools

No. Dependents	Height	Health (√)				
Total	Weight	Excellent	Good	Average	Poor	E.R.B. No.
Partial	Color	Physical defects				W.P.A. No.
		Wear glasses?				Soc. Sec. No.

Circle year or grade completed 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	Name and place of school	Courses studied	Yrs. attended	Degree
College 1 2 3 4				
Gradute Sch. 1 2 3				
Bus. or Tech. 1 2 3 4				
Special Training				

What machines can you operate? Yrs. exp. Yrs. exp. Yrs. Exp.

1st choice occupation A B C (underscore rating) | 2nd choice occupation A B C (underscore rating)

Name and address of employer	Trade or business of employer	Kind of work done	How long employed	Date left	Salary Per	Reasons for leaving
a.						
b.						
c.						
d.						

REFERENCES

a.	c.
Per	Per
b.	d.
Per	Per

PLACEMENT RECORD

Reinterview		Notified	Referred	Employer	Kind of Work	Results

Remarks:

Tests:

Personality: A+ A B C (underscore rating)

General Appearance (√)
Clean Neat Untidy Unkempt Appears Younger — Older —

Manner (√)
Evasive Self-Reliant Diffident Shy Insolent Arrogant Refined Congenial

Intelligence (√)
Alert Dull

Attitudes (√)
Antagonistic Serious Ambitious Indifferent Responsive

Signature of applicant:

Interviewer:

ST. LOUIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTION

INFORMATION TO APPLICANT

This circular of information is addressed to those who make inquiries concerning positions in the Saint Louis Public Schools.

Vacancies. Usually there is no vacancy for which an application can be given immediate consideration. Receipt of this circular, therefore, should not be construed as indicating encouragement; but those whose training and experience meet the requirements listed in this circular may place their credentials with the Department of Instruction for reference and for consideration if opportunity arises.

How to Make Application. Fill out completely and return to the Superintendent the official application form; and ask the colleges or universities in which credits have been earned to send a certified transcript of such credits to the Superintendent of Instruction, 911 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri. Submit with the application any additional data or materials which should receive consideration. The Superintendent will address confidental inquiries to those whose names are given on the application as references when such action seems desirable.

Minimum Educational Requirements. Applicants for a position as teacher—any rank excepting the rank of special teacher of a trade or vocation in the vocational schools as noted below—and applicants for any position as principal, assistant principal, supervisor or assistant supervisor, must have the following minimum training:

1. Graduation from a standard college or university with not less than 120 semester hour credits. A Master's degree is required in most cases for appointment as a teacher in the high schools.

2. Eighteen semester hour credits in the specific subject or field of instruction for which the application is received.

3. Enough credits in Education to meet the minimum standard recommended for high school teachers by the North Central Association—at the present time, 15 semester hours.

Applicants for appointment to the rank of special teacher of a trade or vocation in the vocational schools may be permitted to qualify without the foregoing educational preparation provided such applicants have had adequate training and successful experience in the trade or vocation specified.

Experience. Applicants must have at least two years of successful experience in teaching before consideration is given for appointment. Some of the positions in the vocational schools, however, are filled by the appointment of applicants who can offer successful trade or vocational experience in lieu of previous teaching experience.

Married Women. Applications from married women are not accepted in the Department of Instruction, since, under existing regulations, married women are not eligible for appointment.

Examinations. The rules of the Board of Education require that: "All appointments and promotions of teachers shall be made upon the basis of merit, to be ascertained as far as practicable, in cases of appointment, by examination or other evidence of preparation and experience; and in cases of promotion by length and character of service." Whenever conditions warrant the scheduling of an examination in connection with an application, the applicant will be notified. The taking of examinations when they are given, however, is no guarantee of appointment, but merely a step in the process of qualification.

Certified Transcripts of College Credits. Before an application can be considered complete, certified transcripts of the applicant's college record must be sent to the Superintendent of Instruction, 911 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri. These transcripts should include all credits earned beyond the high school grades, and should be sent directly to the Superintendent by the registrar of the college at the request of the applicant. The transcripts thus submitted are to be retained by the Department of Instruction of the St. Louis Public Schools.

Photograph. A late photograph should accompany the application, unless the applicant is a St. Louis teacher. The name and address should be written on the back of the photograph.

Renewal. Applications should be renewed annually. Those not so renewed are subject, without notice from this office, to withdrawal from consideration.

(OVER)

Form SO-36 July '37 1M

Kind of Position. In specifying the kind of position for which application is made, the terminology indicated in the following list should be used.

Teacher's College:

Principal
Professor
Associate Professor
Assistant Professor
Instructor
Librarian

Courses offered in the Teachers' Colleges are listed in the college bulletins.

High School:

Principal.
Assistant Principal.
Librarian
Teacher in any of the following subjects:
English.
Mathematics.
Physical Science, (Chemistry, Physics, Physiography).
Social Studies, (Geography, History, Sociology, Economics).
French, German, Latin, or Spanish.
Biology, (Botany, Physiology).
Manual Arts, (specify Mechanical Drawing, Machine Designing, Architecture, Wood Working, Pattern Making, Foundry, Forging, Sheet Metal, Machine Shop, Auto Mechanics, Electricity, Printing).
Home Economics, (Clothing and Food).
Art, (Graphic and Plastic Art and Art Appreciation).
Music.
Commercial (specify Accounting, Stenography Typewriting, Salesmanship, Advertising, Business Administration, Commercial Law).
Physical Education.
Health.

Elementary School:

Principal

All positions as teacher in the elementary schools are filled by the appointment of graduates of the Teachers Colleges maintained by the Board of Education in the city of St. Louis for the training of elementary teachers. Applications are not received, therefore, for these positions except as follows: Teachers in the subjects of Manual Arts (Elementary), and Home Economics (Elementary), and teachers of the deaf, the hard of hearing, and the speech correction classes.

Vocational School: Appointments to the various positions in the vocational schools are made, under existing regulations, at the rank of special teacher of a specified trade or subject or at any regular rank of the teaching service authorized for high, intermediate, or elementary schools. Applications for a position in the vocational school should specify the kind of trade or the particular subject which the applicant wishes to teach.

Miscellaneous Positions:

Director or Assistant. (Specify title)
Supervisor or Assistant. (Specify title)
Bath Attendant.
Assistant Attendance Officer.
Inspector of Hygiene.
School Nurse.
Clerk.

ST. LOUIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DEPARTMENT OF INSTRUCTION

APPLICATION FOR POSITION IN INSTRUCTION DEPARTMENT

Name ..... Date.....19.....

Present address: Street..... Telephone.....

City .....State .....

Home Address: Street..... Telephone .....

City .....State .....

I hereby apply for a position as:

1. Teacher of (specify subjects) (1)..... (2)..... (3).....
   in the Teachers College ☐, High School ☐, Vocational School ☐, Elementary School ☐.
   (For Vocational School, specify trades, subjects related to trades, commercial subjects, or academic subjects.)
2. Specify any other authorized position for which application is made

.....

I submit for your consideration the following information:

a. Date of Birth..... Age.....Birthplace .....

b. Male ☐ c. White ☐ d. Married ☐ Divorced ☐ e. Weight..... f. Height.....

Female ☐ Colored ☐ Single ☐ Widow or Widower ☐ Are you a citizen of the United States? Yes ☐ No ☐

(Place X in square **after** the appropriate word or phrase.)

I. SCHOOLS OR CLASSES ATTENDED AS A STUDENT:

Completed eighth grade Yes ☐ No ☐ Graduate of a 4-year High School Yes ☐ No ☐ College Degree.....

Name of School*	Major Subject or Courses	Number of Years or of Credit Hours	Exact Dates

*Submit a certified transcript of college credits to be retained with the application.

II. EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING:

Name of School	Subjects	Number of Years	Dates	Annual Salary

Number of years I have worked in the trade, or other field, in which I wish to teach in the Vocational school.....

III. EXPERIENCE IN BUSINESS, TRADE, OR INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT:

EMPLOYER	ADDRESS	TYPE OF WORK	NUMBER OF MONTHS	EXACT DATES

(Letters verifying employment record must be submitted by applicants for a position in the Vocational School.)

Name the different kinds of work you have done in your trade or occupation:

1 ..... 5 .....

2 ..... 6 .....

3 ..... 7 .....

4 ..... 8 .....

IV. Experience, other than teaching, in working with young people, such as clubs, camps, etc.:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

V. Additional experience or preparation, not noted above, which helps to qualify you for the position:

.....

.....

VI. Summer and evening school experience:

SUMMER SCHOOL	YEAR	GRADE OR SUBJECT	EVENING SCHOOL	YEAR	GRADE OR SUBJECT

References. (Give names and address of persons who have official knowledge of your work as student or teacher; and in case application is made for vocational teaching, include persons having official knowledge of business, trade, or industrial experience.)

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